

Working
with
Children
in
Social
Studies

Edith P. Merritt

San Francisco State College

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EDITH P. MERRITT



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L.C. Cat. Card No.: 61-7376

Printed in the United States of America.

Manufactured by American Book-Stratford Press, Inc.

PHOTOGRAPH CREDITS: Frederic Burk School, San Francisco State College, pages 125, 170, 213, 232, 233; Dr. Harry Green, Art Department, San Francisco State College, No. 3 on page 226, 228; Mrs. Barbara Linse, Nos. 1 and 2 on page 226; Mr. Herbert Simon, Art Consultant, San Francisco Public Schools, for pictures of McLaren School, page 250; the author's students for pages 220, 221, 222, 223, 248, 249. Thanks go to the photographers: Mr. Don Maskell; Mr. Raymond Wiman, Audio-Visual Department, San Francisco State College.

Preface

Citizens of the twenty-first century are students in today's elementary classrooms. The task of the teacher in these classrooms is surely a complex one, as he helps his students develop values, understandings, and skills needed for responsible citizenship now and in the future. The purpose of this book is to help teachers and prospective teachers utilize the special contributions of social studies in accomplishing this task.

Basic to this book are certain assumptions regarding social studies in the elementary school:

Social studies is the area of the curriculum designed to help children understand the physical and social world in which they live and to grow toward competence in dealing with it.

Social studies serves to fulfill the basic purpose of schools in this country: to help children learn to live effectively in their world through the development of desirable understandings, skills, attitudes, and behaviors.

Social studies requires ways of working with children that give meaning to subject matter and that result in lifelong learnings. It cannot be taught as a set of specific facts or skills, although it utilizes both; rather, it requires varied and flexible teaching procedures that are focused on helping groups and individuals learn how to learn and how to make wise decisions.

The major emphasis in this book is on the last assumption. Although the teacher must have a clear conception of modern society and its goals for education, his most important task is that of working with children in ways that lead to these goals.

The first part of this book deals with the role and purposes of social studies, pointing out important considerations in the selec-

tion of content. The second and major part of the book deals with the selection and use of learning resources, and suggests experiences through which children learn to organize and utilize their learning. The suggestions given are not meant to be prescriptive; rather, they illustrate ways of working that keep the ways of learning open for children and teachers. The last section deals with evaluation. The selective bibliography at the end of each chapter offers a guide for further reading.

The author is privileged to have been the recorder and interpreter of thoughts of many creative minds. The ideas of many children and teachers in classes at the Frederic Burk Elementary School, of students, and co-workers in class, conference, and committee groups in the Elementary Education Department at San Francisco State College permeate this book.

Special appreciation for valuable suggestions at various stages in the development of the manuscript goes to Dr. Wilhelmina Hill, Specialist for Social Science, United States Office of Education, and to the following professors: Jack Allen of George Peabody College for Teachers; Clay Andrews of San Jose State College; Frank J. Estvan of the University of Wisconsin; John Lee, formerly of Northwestern University; C. G. Strickland of Baylor University; Mary Willcockson of Miami University.

The author is also deeply grateful to Mrs. Florine Leiser of San Francisco State College for her encouraging review of the manuscript in its early stages, and to other co-workers who have read and commented on various sections; and to Mrs. Frances Gripenstraw for the care and thought invested in preparing the manuscript and the index. More than to any other, special acknowledgment goes to the author's husband, Russell, whose assuring presence lightened the task of putting these ideas on paper.

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Working
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PART 1

The central purpose for schools in a democracy is to develop individuals whose actions are governed by values consistent with democratic ideals and who have the skills and understanding needed to fulfill their role as citizens. The first three chapters of this book are directed toward demonstrating how social studies can achieve this purpose.

Social Studies
in the
Elementary
School

1

The Central Role of Social Studies

Public elementary school pupils in this country represent a large portion of our population. Their numbers already exceed twenty-five million! Large growing spurts are still anticipated. The imagination is staggered by the problems of providing education for so large a number. Adequate facilities must be provided; competent personnel must be supplied; but, above all, educational policy and philosophy must be defined and designed to fit the needs of our future citizens. And so it is that all the aims and endeavors of the public school curriculum are directed toward one major goal—the preparation of the individual for effective participation in a democratic society. The whole range of understandings and skills, behaviors and attitudes, necessary to this participation are what the elementary school seeks to develop. In the attainment of this goal, social studies has a unique responsibility.

Social Studies in Schools Today

There was a time when preparation for social participation was not clearly recognized as a responsibility of the public school. Schools concentrated on the important but narrow

range of reading, writing, and arithmetic skills, with limited attention to history, geography, and civics. Although these subjects still remain a major part of the curriculum, two factors have broadened the school's responsibilities.

One is the increasing complexity of the society the school seeks to serve. Scientific advances have created changes in ways of living almost more rapidly than social systems can assimilate them. People throughout the world have been brought closer to each other through improved transportation and communication. Problems, often international in scope, require solutions. Young people today are growing up in a world different from that of their parents and teachers. The effects of automation, of mass communication, of shifts to urban living continue to change social environment. It is the responsibility of the school to help young people toward a systematic understanding of the world in which they live and toward the competence needed to meet the ever-changing demands of society. Social studies is the area of the curriculum with special responsibility for this task.

The second factor contributing to a broader school program is the increasing information on how children learn. In the past, heavy emphasis was placed on mastery of factual content in history, geography, and civics. Once the facts were mastered, it was thought that children could automatically transfer them into guides for action in adult life. Or, even if the facts were forgotten, it was assumed that the process of memorizing them somehow trained the mind so that other facts were more easily acquired. Substantial research on how learning takes place has produced new beliefs. Children learn the things for which they see relationships in their own lives and in which their interests and concerns are invested. In this sense, learning must be self-propelled. The school's job is to provide experiences that encourage pupils to explore, discover, organize, and test out meanings. Social studies provides the interest-center around which many kinds of learnings can take place.

Important Roles of Social Studies

Thus, social studies has been assigned two major roles in elementary school classrooms. Emphasis in social studies is divided between the role of the development of thinking, participating,

decision-making individuals and the role of providing a systematic study of society. Both roles are important and, in fact, support each other as well as other related social studies roles.

Citizenship Learnings

Social studies can contribute much to the citizenship goal of developing individuals able to assume responsibilities of citizenship—well-informed, thinking people who have genuine concern for the general welfare and who are prepared to participate in the economic, political, and social life of the community.

Learning of human relations skills

The elementary classroom provides a laboratory for learning the human relations skills essential to citizenship in a democracy. Social studies utilizes content from the social sciences and provides the setting in which both group and individual enterprise are utilized in fulfilling planned tasks.

Relating school learnings to life

An interesting paradox faced by every teacher is that, although schools are designed to teach boys and girls how to live life effectively, the school itself, by confining children in buildings and classrooms, tends to separate them from much of life. One of the important tasks faced by every teacher is that of closing the gap between the isolated world of the school and the world at large. Social studies can serve as a bridge between these two worlds by focusing on how people meet their needs through use of their physical and social environment and how they fulfill their role as citizens.

Social Science Learnings

Social studies is important in another way. It helps make children aware of the growing field of knowledge relating to man as a social being. The content of social studies is expanding as its parent subject areas in the social sciences continue to expand. New knowledge in the social sciences—anthropology, political science, geography, economics, history, sociology, and psychology—is pouring in almost faster than it can be organized

and made available for instructional use. For this reason, selection of appropriate content from the social sciences for use in social studies is a crucial problem worthy of continual attention. The social studies, utilizing material from the social sciences, provides each student with maximum opportunity to systematize for himself knowledge about man in his physical and social setting.

Social studies and the social sciences

Even after a half-century of use, the term social studies needs continual clarification. One definition states: "The 'social studies' indicates a field composed of such subjects as economics, geography, civics and history. . . . The social studies constitutes that field whose content deals directly with human relationships."¹ The Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges states: "The over-all term for the subjects of instruction which stress human relationships is social studies. The social studies constitute a field, and not a subject, a federation of subjects and not a unified discipline."²

Both these statements define social studies as a unified area utilizing content dealing with man as a social being. In the elementary school, social studies is concerned with both content and process. It is that part of the curriculum that is designed to help children understand man's ways of living and his relationship to his physical and social environment. To this end, it utilizes findings from the social sciences in ways that further children's understanding of their world and foster their growing ability to cope with it.

The social sciences—the fields of research and advanced study from which social studies content is drawn—are not themselves clearly defined. *The Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences* lists

¹ Edwin R. Carr, Wilbur F. Murra, Edgar Bruce Wesley, *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. Walter S. Monroe (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952), pp. 1213-1214.

² Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, Report of the Committee of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the National Council for the Social Studies, Edgar B. Wesley, Director of the Committee (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944), p. 56.

a total of seventeen fields of study considered to be social sciences; seven of these are classified as pure social sciences, four as semi-social sciences, and five as fields of study important to the social sciences.³ Nor are all social sciences of equal importance as sources of content for social studies. Geography, history, political science, economics, anthropology, psychology, sociology, and philosophy are representative.⁴

The social sciences represent highly specialized fields resulting from careful study and research and organized in ways appropriate to their content. They have in common the fact that each of these specialized fields deals with the study of man. For young children, the study of the discrete advanced social science fields is inappropriate because they do not accommodate children's need to deal with problems of concern to them and closely related to their lives. The teacher, however, needs to be well-grounded in the social sciences in order to help children see the relationships of learnings from several of the social sciences to the topic under study.

History, along with geography, has had a major share of attention in elementary school social studies. History provides clues for understanding today's world through political and cultural events of the past. Its content is utilized best when children use appropriate materials of history along with materials from other social sciences as they explore an area of study.

Geography has important concepts and skills that are essential ingredients of social studies. Children's natural interest in the world around them invites geographic emphases in units of work at any grade level. Geographic concepts, like other concepts, develop through a cumulative process as children work with them in a variety of ways at every grade level. If geography may be defined as the study of the relationship between man and the environment in which he finds himself, five concepts considered basic to understanding that relationship are as follows:

³ Edwin R. A. Seligman, "What Are the Social Sciences?" *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1930), Vol. 1, pp. 3-7.

⁴ *Building Curriculum in Social Studies for the Public Schools of California*, Bulletin of California State Department of Education, Vol. XXVI, No. 4, A Progress Report of the California State Central Committee on Social Studies (Sacramento, California, May, 1957), pp. 13-49.

1. All human societies are necessarily forced to establish workable connections with the resources and conditions of the land in order to survive.
2. Simple cultures have a few direct connections with the earth resources of their immediate locality, but the more complex the culture the greater the variety of connections with the earth resources and the more indirect they become. . . .
3. The most complex culture of all—the industrial society—by its essential nature is global in its scope and international in its needs. If it is to survive it must draw upon all the world's resources, and all the world's people must share its benefits. . . .
4. The significance of the features of the physical earth is determined by man and not by nature. The regions of the world now occupied by the most complex cultures were once considered fit only for barbarians, and changing technology can again change the whole resource pattern, the significance of the climatic pattern, the basic relation of man to the earth. This increases—not decreases—the importance of analyzing the present-day significance of earth features in relation to human societies. It makes geography an adventure in understanding, not an exercise in memory.
5. The physical and human differences which exist from place to place on the earth are significant to us because the great economic, social, and political issues of our time are in part the direct result of these differences.⁵

Concepts such as those listed above need to be developed through materials and experiences appropriate for children's maturity level. The factual content through which these concepts may be extended is limitless.

In the elementary classroom, children may deal with understandings from any or all of the social sciences through content that has meaning for them. Thus, a second grade class studying *The Bakery* (using the local bakery as an example) would certainly deal with understandings that utilize concepts from the

⁵ Preston E. James, "Developments in the Field of Geography and Their Implications for the Geography Curriculum," *The Journal of Geography*, A Magazine for Schools, National Council for Geographic Education (Chicago: A. J. Nystrom & Co., September, 1947), Vol. 45, pp. 222-223. Courtesy Journal of Geography.

basic social sciences. Through this study, children would develop understandings such as these:

From geography: The location of the bakery in relation to the school and the reasons for its location. Flour comes from wheat. Wheat, which comes from different sections of the country, is selected for the special qualities produced in each area. People in our city use materials from far-away places.

From economics: Bakery jobs are specialized and create a demand for the goods and services of other kinds of workers.

From anthropology: A beginning understanding that culture dictates the tools used, the things made, and the ways of behaving in various roles and situations.

From political science: City health inspectors enforce civic health regulations.

These are but a few samples; the opportunities are limitless. In fact, a study of The Bakery may be chosen because it does provide an opportunity for children to begin to develop basic understandings from the social sciences.

Thus, although elementary school social studies utilizes concepts from various social sciences, it differs from them in its method of presentation. Study of specific social sciences is reserved for mature students and scholars. Social studies adapts materials and procedure to accommodate young learners and does not attempt to deal with the isolated social sciences in a logically organized presentation. This means that social studies is more than presentation of the separate social sciences in simplified form. It utilizes broad topics or units of study that focus on selected understandings from the social sciences, deepening and extending them through many experiences.

Social studies utilizes social science research and methodology to understand and determine courses of action; the social sciences are concerned primarily with research—to determine the objective data upon which value decisions may be based. Both encourage curiosity that is satisfied only by the most rigorous analysis of pertinent information. The social scientist's curiosity, however, may lead to inquiry free of need to act; social studies focuses on social action and a thorough examination of the possible choices involved.

The elementary school teacher selects (with the help of curriculum guides and courses of study) social studies content to give all children a better understanding of the world in which they live, and some children the beginning background of information that may stimulate more intensified study of the social sciences in later school years.

Social Education, Social Living, Social Learnings

Social education refers to the deliberate instruction, by teachers, parents and other adults, designed to promote children's social development in desirable directions. It is by no means confined to one area of the curriculum or to the school day. The school, however, does provide many opportunities throughout the school day, in and out of the classroom, to develop children's effectiveness in human relations. School and classroom activities, planned and incidental, provide the matrix. Social studies shares in this social education task.

Social living, like social education, refers to a whole gamut of social learnings that enable young people to live effectively with others. Social learnings grow as children meet and deal with others successfully in many situations, and each individual needs opportunity to do this. Thus, a major task of the school is to provide the social settings in which children can build adequate self-concepts. Social studies is directed toward providing opportunities for social living and learning.

"Social education," "social learning," "social living" are similar in meaning in that they place major emphasis on human relations and on the interaction process through which children reach their own personal system of values and behaviors. Social studies is also concerned with the development of personal-social competence, but it differs in that it is charged with specific content responsibilities. Content dealing with man's relationship to his world—the special province of social studies—provides rich opportunities for interaction through which social learnings develop.

Social Studies and Related Learnings

Within the classroom, social studies serves as a unifying force for many kinds of learnings. Later chapters will discuss the

use of language arts, music, art, and dramatization as a functional part of social studies. With social studies as a focal point for the school day, learnings in many other areas take on added meaning. Of special concern is the relationship of science to the social studies.

Science and the social studies

For children who live in a world dominated by science, the relationship between the natural world, its physical properties and how man has utilized them, becomes an important facet of social studies. Social studies is concerned with man's relation to his physical world. It therefore uses science learnings appropriate for elementary children—learnings that center around broad areas such as these:

1. The universe—stars, moon, planets, seasons, day and night, tides, eclipses, galaxies, Milky Way, space.
2. The earth—origin, soil, mountains, erosion, volcanism, prehistoric life, and the forces that have changed and are still changing the surface of the earth.
3. Conditions necessary to life—what living things need in order to exist, how they are affected by changes in the environment, and the struggle for conditions necessary to life.
4. Living things—variety of living things, social life of animals, adaptations for protection, life cycles of plants and animals, how living things obtain their food, the economic importance of living things, and man's influence upon nature.
5. The physical and chemical phenomena—rusting, light, sound, gravity, electricity and magnetism, changes in state of matter, and the phenomena associated with radiant energy and atmospheric changes.
6. Man's attempt to control his environment—man's control in gardens, farms, orchards; inventions and discoveries; use of power, of minerals; his control over living things; his study of places he cannot reach directly; and other such topics.*

All these science areas influence people's lives and so become a special province of social studies. Almost any social

* National Society for the Study of Education, *Science Education in American Schools*, 46th Yearbook, Part I (Chicago: The Society, 1947), pp. 75-76.

studies area of work has science implications. A study of transportation, for example, requires understanding of power—the power of wind and animal used in early days, the power of jet engines today. Studies of pioneer life emphasize dramatically the scientific aspects in man's use of nature's resources for food, clothing, shelter, transportation, and communication. Science has the advantage—unlike much of the arts, humanities, and social sciences—of being subject to proof. Science hypotheses can be tested. For this reason, generous use of science in relation to social studies helps develop a way of gathering, testing, and using facts—reaching conclusions that can be verified through observation and experimentation. One can test out by experimentation what happens when water is converted into steam and arrive at verified conclusions about steam as a source of power. Problems related to the effect on human life of the development of steam as a source of power are not so easily observed or verified but need equal care in their resolution.

Perhaps one of the major contributions of science in the elementary curriculum is its contribution to problem solving—the method common to both science and social studies.

...The scientific method of problem solving is a universal method. In both science and social studies we identify problems, state them carefully, decide on procedures for finding the answers, follow these procedures, and apply our findings to answering the problem.⁷

Purposes of Social Studies

Because social studies is a relatively new area in the curriculum, it is one in which many teachers (and parents, too) feel some uncertainty. Both the procedures and content of social studies are less clearly defined than those of curriculum areas such as spelling or arithmetic. Teachers of social studies today do not have the guide of their own childhood school experiences to use in today's classroom. The content of social studies is not

⁷ Glenn O. Blough, "Science and Social Studies in Today's Elementary School," *Science and the Social Studies*, ed. Howard H. Cummings (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, National Educational Association, 1957), p. 197.

static; it needs frequent change as new findings from the social sciences are made known. In social studies, the teacher must be a learner, continually adding to and revising his own background of knowledge; he must be able to utilize a wide variety of instructional procedures and the thoughtful adaptation of them to specific classroom situations. High-level teaching skills are required in utilizing significant materials from the social science fields in ways that are appropriate for children at the elementary school level. The complexity of social studies as an area requiring broad use of the social sciences requires that its purposes in elementary classrooms be clearly defined.

Social Studies and Goals of Education

The purposes of social studies cannot be considered apart from the purposes of education itself. An examination of the following national statement of purposes from the Education Policies Commission reveals that understandings of the social sciences are essential in fulfilling many of the educational objectives. In fact, it is difficult to find any single objective that does not require application of some social understandings.

1. THE OBJECTIVES OF SELF-REALIZATION

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health Knowledge. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

II. THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

III. THE OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirement and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

IV. THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.*

Major Objectives of Social Studies

Fulfilling the purposes of education as children progress from grade to grade—through kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, high school, junior college, and college—is a complex task. The assignment of specific responsibilities to certain subject areas helps simplify the problem. Social studies encompasses a broad area of study but its chief responsibility is to help children understand the world in which they live and par-

* Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1938), pp. 50-108.

ticipate in it effectively. There are three contributing sub-goals that contribute to the major objective:

1. **KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDINGS.** Understandings in elementary school social studies deal primarily with man, his utilization of the physical environment, and the institutions and arrangements that constitute his social environment.

The social studies program has the responsibility of defining our national heritage. Ours is a country expanding across a continent and assimilating people from many lands, a country in need of a common culture. Social studies seeks to provide this by emphasizing our history with its adventures and heroes. History, geography, and civics are focal points for teaching, but schools should be wary of the tendency to allow them to dominate the social studies program. The newer social sciences—economics, sociology, anthropology, psychology—also have important contributions to make. Content selection must be based on determination of key understandings from the social sciences and their appropriateness for elementary school children.

The social sciences are a limitless reservoir of instructional content, and, naturally, the vast amount of material creates problems in selection. For teaching purposes not only are understandings from the social sciences important but also some way of relating them to problems of concern to children. Some areas of learning utilize concepts from all the social sciences, are appropriate at every grade level, and provide for integration of materials from all the social sciences. The following are six of these areas:

1. **Democracy as a way of life.** Through the long upward struggle of man toward a better social and personal life, there has emerged a set of values and social processes that make the framework of the ideals of democracy.
2. **Cultural values.** The basic substance of a culture is rooted in its values. Man feels a need for a framework of values. Values are the most persistent and important problem faced by human beings.
3. **Environment.** Surroundings and conditions affect man's way of living, and man in turn modifies his external conditions. Included are physical, economic, social, and political environment.

4. *Cultural heritage.* Man's cultural environment is dependent on contributions of the past and exerts a great influence on his ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling and acting in the present.
5. *Interdependence.* Dependence on one another is a constant force among people everywhere.
6. *Social systems.* Social groupings of all kinds develop as a means of group cooperation in meeting individual and societal needs.⁹

These concepts can be developed for use at each grade level. For example, the first grader finding out about The Grocery Store, the fifth grader finding out about The United States and Its Products, or the eighth grader finding out about World Trade are developing understandings about our economic life in depth and scope appropriate to their maturing ability. In each of these three topics, the key idea, principally from the field of economics, might be stated simply that "people find ways to meet their needs through trade." As children progress through the school years, content provides the opportunity for understandings to change, expand, and deepen according to the developing abilities of individual children to deal with them. Content should be selected on a basis of its contribution to "big ideas." It has little value except as it helps individuals interpret, assess, and act upon their personal understandings. Chapter 3 will deal with the problem of selection of content that leads to essential understandings.

2. **ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS.** Social studies helps children develop attitudes that lead to behavior appropriate for democratic citizens. Attitudes dictate behavior of individuals; national values dictate school objectives. It is important, therefore, to assess the values to which the American people owe allegiance. One such statement of values follows:

The values of democracy, both as a method of government and as a way of life, may be summarized as (1) a respect for the individual and a faith in his unique worth and infinite value regardless of race, creed, or economic circumstance; (2) the

⁹ Adapted from Social Studies Workshop Report, unpublished mimeograph (San Francisco State College, July, 1957).

willingness and ability to participate cooperatively and peacefully in the promotion of common concerns and in the solution of common problems; (3) faith in the intelligence of the common man and a willingness and ability to use reason rather than prejudice, bigotry, or force in the solution of group problems; and, (4) a belief that through mutual respect, cooperative action, and the use of intelligence man can achieve peace, prosperity and happiness.¹⁰

Attitudes are often intangible and difficult to assess. However, the elementary school must seek to define and strive for attitudes that impel children toward desirable behavior. It has been said that the job of the school is to make children want to behave as they must behave if they are to live effectively in a democratic society. The magic phrase here is "want to behave." Any teacher can get conforming behavior. But, behavior that results from desirable attitudes is the real goal of teaching. Elementary school social studies should provide opportunity for children to "try on" appropriate attitudes and behaviors. Only as children feel their way can they know, for example, what "the willingness and ability to participate cooperatively" feels like in action. Consequently, the elementary social studies teacher has the two tasks of determining those behaviors and attitudes essential for democratic citizens and of providing the opportunities to try them out in group planning, decision, and action.

Cooperation (here defined as a desirable democratic value) can be experienced in almost any part of the school day. However, there is greater opportunity for cooperation when groups of children are painting a mural depicting The Covered Wagons Travel West than in the individual child's mastering of spelling words. Also, there is opportunity to discuss cooperation as a factor in American life as children discover the cooperation needed by those in the wagon train.

3. **SKILLS.** Social studies helps children to develop varied skills needed for participation in contemporary society. In certain skill areas, social studies plays a facilitating role. Skills commonly thought of as "school skills"—reading, writing, and speaking—

¹⁰ James Quillen and Lavone Hanna, *Education for Social Competence* (copyright 1948 by Scott, Foresman & Co., Chicago), p. 21.

are used and re-enforced through social studies. For example, social studies provides an opportunity for teaching and using reading skills in locating information. Or, the organization of information gathered in notes, outlines, or reports to share with others puts language skills to use. Arithmetic skills are used as children interpret quantitative information as in a comparison of Magellan's trip around the world with that of present-day air travel. Such a comparison would call for interpretation of differences in length of routes, of the time required, of supplies needed, and so on. These skills come to life as they are put to use in social studies.

Social studies carries heavy responsibility for developing other important skills, for example, problem solving. Problem-solving skills, both in group and individual settings, develop as children inquire, seek information, devise, and test possible solutions. Problem-solving skills in group settings require a whole gamut of social skills—of working with others, of utilizing ideas of others, and at the same time developing one's own initiative for accepting and discharging responsibility as an individual.

Living with others, which implies solving problems together, requires a whole set of social skills. In both its content and procedures, social studies is conducive to development of essential social skills.

Social studies carries major responsibilities for other skills such as those related to understanding time and space concepts. If skill in these areas is not to be left to chance, the social studies program must provide for their sequential development. As with most skills, conditions for their development require that readiness for the desired skill be established, that specific instruction be given, and that it be maintained through frequent use.

Many curriculum guides utilize in some form the three goals described in making clear the specific responsibility of the social studies. However, it is important to recognize the relatedness of these goals. Understandings, skills, and attitudes do not develop in isolation from each other. They are closely interrelated. The use of broad units of work as a basic procedure in social studies stems from the need to provide for development of understandings, skills, and attitudes in ways that permit their simultaneous development.

Summary

Changes in the world today and the prospects of continuing change have placed new demands upon the school. Social studies shares responsibility with the rest of the elementary school curriculum for helping young people understand their world and for using learning procedures that best insure their growing competence as citizens of community, nation, and world. The social sciences upon which elementary school social studies is based are continually expanding as fields of knowledge, and these changes require that the social studies program make use of new learnings that aid in developing the knowledge and understanding, the attitudes and behaviors, and the many skills that lead to effective participation in the life of our times. Because of the growing knowledge that is its foundation and the comprehensiveness of its goals, social studies frequently serves as the center around which many school learnings cluster.

For Further Study

Many different viewpoints are held and expressed concerning the functions of the schools in a changing world, its contributions to democratic citizenship, and the role of social studies in the elementary curriculum. Your own experiences dictate some of your ideas and can be thoughtfully assessed in light of further reading and study. On the basis of experiences such as your own elementary schooling, observation in classrooms, discussion with elementary teachers, and reading, what are your tentative conclusions concerning the topics listed below?

1. *The role of the school in a changing society.*

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947. A statement of elementary school objectives as behavior goals by a committee of leading educators.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapter 1. A discussion of changes in modern life that dictate changes in the role of the school.

Kearney, Nolan C. *Elementary School Objectives*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953. A statement of elementary school objectives as behavior goals by a committee of leading educators.

Kenworthy, Leonard. *Introducing Children to the World*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1956. Chapters 1 and 2. An outline of changes that dictate needs for education in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries and characteristics of an effective program to meet these changes.

Smith, B. et al. *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1950. Chapters 2, 3, 4. How changes in community life, economic life, and value-systems affect curriculum.

2. *The role of social studies in the elementary school curriculum.*

Ellsworth, Ruth and Ole Sand (editors). *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum, Twenty-sixth Yearbook*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Social Studies, National Education Association, 1955. Chapters 2 and 3.

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapters 1 and 2. Several statements of objectives to illustrate specific role of social studies. New trends in social studies instruction.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 1. Social studies and its major purposes clearly defined.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Social Studies in Elementary School, Fifty-sixth Yearbook*. Chicago: The Society, University of Chicago Press, 1957. Chapter 5. Social studies, its purposes, and how it functions as an integrating center for the elementary school curriculum.

Wesley, Edgar B. and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., revised 1952. Chapters 1 and 2. Role of social studies in light of changing role of the elementary school.

3. *Social studies as a field of study.*

California State Department of Education. *Building Curriculum in Social Studies for the Public Schools of Cali-*

- fornia. Bulletin, Vol. 26, May, 1957. Concepts from eight social science fields listed as bases for social studies content.
- Cummings, Howard H. (editor). *Science and the Social Studies*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957. Chapters 1, 2, and 10. The impact of science on society, related science and social studies content, and the role of the elementary school in helping children develop scientific understandings and methods.
- Otto, Henry J. *Social Education in Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1956. Chapter 9. A clarification of the relationship of social studies to the broad goals of social education.
- Preston, James (editor). *New Viewpoints in Geography*, Twenty-ninth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1959. The importance of geography and some points of emphasis for teaching it.
- Price, Roy (editor). *New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1958. As the title suggests, new research and thinking in specific social sciences.

2

Guiding Learning in Social Studies

A third grade was asked by a group of future teachers what teachers could do to help children in school. One thoughtful boy, after listening awhile, made his suggestion. "You know what I think?" he said. "I think just one thing would help. Teachers should remember that schools are not just for teachers to teach—they're for children to learn!" This young philosopher was voicing a crucial point in the teaching-learning process. Consideration of what we teach in social studies must be matched with equal consideration for how children learn. These two considerations—what is to be learned and how learning takes place—are basic to the teacher planning for specific teaching procedures.

Learning in the social studies, as in any subject, cannot be separated from the total growth and development of children. At the same time, social studies carries special responsibility for developing the understandings, skills, and attitudes fundamental to citizenship in a democracy. How do children learn understandings, skills, and attitudes? Much of classroom procedure is wasted unless teaching *actually* results in desired learnings. To make teaching count, several factors about the learning process should be considered.

Growth and Development¹

Maturity is a factor in learning. Growing up is a complicated process, partly because of the expectations of the family, neighborhood, and society. Nevertheless, growth and development in human beings follow a predictable course. Babies walk before jumping and climbing. Young children undergo a period of slow growth with large muscle development. Older children experience a "growth spurt" with its concomitant drain on energy and coordination. In spite of this predictability, however, children vary greatly in their timing; each seems to follow his own individual time clock of development. They vary, too, in the ways they react to the changes nature and environment impose on them. Teachers need to be aware of the phases of child development and the kinds of learning environment that aid the growing process. Even more important, teachers must be familiar with the wide range of developmental levels represented in each classroom and in each individual.

All phases of growth and development are interrelated. Sometimes, for purposes of analysis, physical development, social development, intellectual development, and emotional development are considered separately, but each of these developmental phases influences all other phases and cannot be dealt with alone. Children develop in all phases simultaneously, although not necessarily at the same rate in all phases. Every teacher has seen the unevenness of growth. Sometimes social maturing lags behind physical development, or other disparities occur. Acceptance of these differences will help teachers minimize a tendency (when considering developmental levels) to

¹ Material for this section was derived from: Gladys Gardner Jenkins, Helen Shacter, William W. Bauer, *These Are Your Children* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1953); Robert J. Havighurst, *Human Development and Education* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953); Carolyn Tryon and Jesse W. Lilienthal III, "Developmental Tasks," *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools* (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1970 Yearbook, National Education Association, 1950), pp. 77-128, Chapters 6 and 7; J. Murray Lee and Dorris May Lee, *The Child and His Development* (New York: Appleton Century Crofts, 1958); Arthur Witt Blair and William H. Burton, *Growth and Development of the Preadolescent* (New York: Appleton Century-Crofts, 1951); William E. Martin and Celia Burns Stendler, *Child Behavior and Development*, Revised Edition (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1959).

stereotype expected behavior for a grade level. Acceptance of individual variation within patterns of growth frees the teacher to provide varied learning situations in social studies. Children in any grade are different; their needs and interests are different; a grade label does not preclude these differences.

Early Childhood

Young children are explorers. They want to move around and be active. They are susceptible to childhood diseases. There is large muscle growth, and great variation in muscular coordination. They are reaching toward independence but still need and want the approval of adults. They begin to try out friendships, seek out play partners, and play in small groups. Their friends are of either sex and without evidence of social status or race bias. They are curious, ask many questions, and want to know reasons why—usually about things in their environment (including TV). They try out ideas—frequently through playing out their concepts in dramatic play. Topics of conversation are limitless, yet the incompleteness of concepts is often revealed as conversation proceeds. Concepts of time and space usually come into play in reference to self—where “I” live in relation to the school or another child’s house or “before I moved to this school.”

These developmental facts have direct bearing on the social studies program for children in kindergarten and the early grades of elementary school, because it provides opportunities to accommodate the five- to eight-year-olds.

They need to explore, to investigate, to ask and tell about things that are important to them. The school room itself should provide seeing, handling, moving, touching experiences, and the environment surrounding the school can accommodate, to some extent, the urge to examine and explore.

For many children, school is a first experience in limited movement. Social studies can help pay back to children their need to be moving, handling things, trying out. Activities using large blocks, construction, and manipulation fulfill some of the needs for action. Dramatic play is frequently used to test out their ideas about people and their activities.

Social studies provides opportunity to work with others on short-term jobs. On-going activities in social studies for primary

children are flexible so that a child can choose to work alone, with a "partner," or with a small group, varying his working arrangements from day-to-day. Group planning usually involves planning for daily activities or is used to solve specific problems that may arise. Long, involved planning is avoided.

Children are given frequent opportunities to tell about, to explain, to suggest. They are encouraged to verbalize ideas, questions, suggestions. Teachers must be tolerant of children's suggestions, referring back to them questions, misconcepts, or incomplete suggestions. When the teacher moves in too quickly to correct, to point out difficulties, children are denied the opportunity to test out their own ideas and thus discover their own errors in thinking. At the same time, too much correction "dries up" these first attempts to sort out ideas verbally. If the teacher always summarizes, corrects, or restates children's statements, they depend on it—no need to even try to do it. And, of course, the teacher can state an idea concisely—look at all the practice she has had in talking! Children—not the teacher—need practice in expressing ideas.

Warm teacher approval is important for individual and group undertakings. Young children lean heavily on adult approval. At the same time, learning to work and play with others is an important goal. Teacher approval is used to guide children toward independence, self-reliance, and willingness to try out new ideas, materials, and ways of working. Although primary-age children usually like to please the teacher, the teacher must help them to set their own goals and purposes and to fulfill them with creativity.

Later Childhood

Children in later childhood face many challenges, and how well they meet them depends in large measure on the success they have had in fulfilling the growth demands of early childhood. Havighurst has characterized the period of middle childhood as the period of three great outward pushes.

... There is the thrust of the child out of the home and into the peer group, the physical thrust into the world of games and work requiring neuromuscular skills, and the mental thrust

into the world of adult concepts, logic, symbolism, and communication. By the end of middle childhood the individual has worked out his particular style and his level in all three areas.²

Later childhood is a period of slow and steady growth. Coordination is improved. In physical terms, it is sometimes referred to as the "golden age" of childhood, relatively free of childhood diseases, a resting period before the approaching spurt in height and weight. Girls often are taller and heavier than boys. At this time, children are becoming less dependent on adult opinion and more responsive to peer approval. Their friends are usually of the same sex. They form gangs and disband readily. Their play is vigorous. They need sufficient rest even though they seem to have surplus energy.

With less dependence on the adult authority, there comes a greater dependence on the authority of the peer group. The peer world is a world of rules, and, in the process of developing rules to live by, children learn principles of fairness, of right and wrong.³

Curiosity about people, places, and things continues. There is growing curiosity about long-ago times and far-away places, about how things come to be and how things work. Concepts of time and space are developing slowly.

Social studies for children in the later childhood years should accommodate a wide span of individual differences. For this reason, the problems dealt with, the materials used, and the activities planned must fit specific groups of children and specific individuals.

Havighurst's "three outward pushes" need special consideration in planning social studies for this age group.

Teachers need to recognize and foster children's needs for successful relationships with age-mates. Working groups in social studies can provide opportunities for building these relationships. Friendships are built as common interests are discovered. Mutual respect grows as talents and abilities are utilized. Social studies

² Havighurst, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

³ Tryon and Lilienthal, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

encourages the development and use of the interests and talents of each child. As group purposes emerge, two-*sie* and three-*sie* groups find ways to contribute to the group purposes and, in the process, strengthen ways of establishing relationships with others.

Children in the middle years are concerned with measuring up. They are conscious of variation in all kinds of performance skills. The social studies program should help broaden the base for measuring. Recognition for construction, processing, and art skills, for leadership abilities of all kinds, for skill in contributing needed information and ideas—these and many more should enable each child to feel success during the course of each day. Social studies should provide realistic contact with the work world so that children's concepts of jobs, their contribution to our lives, and their requirements are continually re-enforced.

Children should feel responsibility for their own performance. As need for adult approval lessens in importance, children should be guided to set standards of performance and behavior that clarify the basis on which peer approval is earned.

Interests at this age are intense, and children are willing to work at great length and in great detail where their interest and curiosity is involved. Developing and strengthening interests related to social studies understandings is of prime importance for effective learning.

Activities planned must accommodate a wide range of abilities. It is especially important to recognize that some children will go to great lengths to attain accuracy in every detail of a mural, dramatization, or other social studies activity. These research-minded individuals should be encouraged to make their contributions, to fulfill their own need-to-know in ways that benefit others. Again, it is important to foster curiosity and its satisfaction.

Early Adolescence

As children proceed through the elementary grades, the variation in growth patterns becomes greater. Some individuals in a sixth, seventh, or eighth grade class exhibit characteristics of young children, whereas others have moved into the adolescent cycle. Because physical and social characteristics cover a wide span of variation, concern for the needs of individuals in the

group is even more important than in primary grades. At the same time, growth toward freedom from adults (and greater dependence on peer groups) seems to make teacher guidance more difficult. Physical development proceeds rapidly. The bodily changes involved in development of sex organs, as well as rapid growth in height, weight, and muscular development, may create concern in a child—especially when such development is much ahead or behind that of most of his associates.

Perhaps, as part of his move toward independence from adults, there develops a more intense quest for reasons why—explanations that involved putting ideas and events into order for himself. Of paramount importance is his developing relationships with others of his age of both sexes. At the same time, he is learning to relate to the social, political, and economic world in which he is soon to assume full membership.

The social studies program must accommodate a wide range of physical, social, and intellectual developments among children of this age group. Studies of grouping indicate that as children progress through school the range of differences among them becomes greater, and it becomes the teacher's responsibility to deal with this wide range in sixth, seventh, and eighth grade classes.⁴ Classroom procedures must provide for this wide variation.

Children try hard to be adults at this age. Aspirations and wishes frequently center around "when I'm grown up." School—and social studies especially—should strengthen the tie between children's thinking and the real world.

Because most children can handle them readily at this level, the school leans heavily on verbal materials—thus tending to shut out necessary direct learning experiences. Social studies can relate things observed, handled, experimented with, and experienced or talked about outside of school with the information derived from the intensive reading that sometimes dominates these school years. By testing out their ideas in a variety of ways—including discussion, panel presentations, explanations, displays, and other visual presentations of all kinds—the children

⁴W. W. Cook, *Grouping and Promotion in the Elementary School*, Number Two of the Series on Individualization of Instruction (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941).

relate school learnings to life in their community and the world. Current events become an integral part of social studies.

While children of this age are reaching toward adult roles, they also have personal concerns about relating to their age group. Social studies can relate "school learnings" to life outside the classroom and the school and also provide a setting for interaction so that children learn the give and take of dealing with others—of working with both sexes in different ways and in different situations.

Children of this age need experiences in making independent decisions—a process that adults must help them learn. Co-operative decisions made jointly by children and teacher imply a genuine respect for the child's ability to make wise decisions. Social studies can provide an essential practice in the problem-solving process involved in decision making.

Developmental Tasks

Studies of growth and development emphasize that children are more than physical beings; they are social beings as well. Their developmental pattern results from the social process of growing up in a particular culture as well as from the physical process of maturing. Children growing up in other countries have different growing-up problems from the children in our schools; they are confronted with different cultural expectations from children in Chicago, Seattle, or Cratiot County, Michigan. The term "developmental tasks" is used in reference to the effect of both nature and culture in the growing-up process. Havighurst says, "The human individual learns his way through life"—a long series of learning tasks.

Some tasks arise mainly from physical maturation, such as learning to walk, learning to behave acceptably to the opposite sex in adolescence, and (for women) adjusting to the menopause in middle life. Other tasks, arising primarily from the cultural pressure of society, are learning to read, and learning to participate as a socially responsible citizen in society.

There is a third source of developmental tasks—namely, the personal values and aspirations of the individual, which are part of his personality, or self. The personality, or self, emerges from the interaction of organic and environmental forces. As the self

evolves, it becomes increasingly a force in its own right in the subsequent development of the individual. . . .

Examples of tasks arising primarily from the personal motives and values of the individual are: choosing and preparing for an occupation, and achieving a scale of values in and a philosophy of life.⁶

Analyses of developmental tasks give clues to the kinds of expectancies children face and provide teachers with guides toward classroom procedures that foster development. In the physical growth cycle of every child there is a period for maximum accomplishment of any given developmental task.⁶

Developmental tasks are interrelated in a complex fashion. Success in one creates readiness for a succeeding task. Failure to succeed in a developmental task may lead to problems later on. Sometimes behavior that may seem undesirable to adults results from attempts to fulfill such tasks. Parents and teachers need to understand the developmental demands a child faces if they are to help, rather than thwart, fulfillment. As an individual moves through infancy, early childhood, early adolescence, and late adolescence these are the tasks with which he is confronted, each of which must be fulfilled at each stage of development:

Each child needs to achieve an appropriate dependence-independence pattern.

Each child needs to achieve an appropriate giving-receiving pattern of affection.

Each child needs to adjust to changing social groups.

Each child needs to develop a conscience.

Each child needs to explore an appropriate psycho-biological sex role.

Each child needs to manage a changing body and learn new moral patterns.

Each child needs to learn to understand and control the physical world.

Each child needs to develop an appropriate symbol system and conceptual abilities.

Each child needs to relate himself to the cosmos.⁷

⁶ Havighurst, *op. cit.*, p. 4.

⁷ Tryon and Lilienthal, *op. cit.*, Chapter 6.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 84-87. See 1950 Yearbook for elaboration and further interpretation.

Awareness of these tasks and how they are being met influences teacher planning all through the day. Procedures in social studies, and in other areas, should enhance rather than inhibit their fulfillment.

Child Development and Social Studies

What each child learns from any teaching is dependent on that child's past experiences, his concerns, his feelings about himself and others. Each child learns for himself, selecting things with meaning for him. "Learning, we are coming to understand, is a problem of a total personality. It is the problem of an individual's personal discovery of meaning."⁸ Effective teaching, then, begins with sensitivity to the learner, with giving him leeway to make discoveries in ways that make sense to him. One of the advantages of social studies in the elementary curriculum is that it can provide the necessary leeway of learning resources, things to do and things to find out.

Teachers sometimes feel torn between their concern for needs of individual children and dealing with prescribed content. Yet social studies content has such scope that the range of possible approaches, the variety of learning resources, the procedures for developing understandings can accommodate a wide range of individual variation. There is ample evidence to show that children are interested in social studies content. Baker⁹ found that fifty per cent of the questions raised by children in the intermediate grades fall within social studies areas. Questions asked indicated that children were ready to deal with problems requiring thoughtful analysis and interpretation.

Younger children, too, search for meanings, and their questions indicate their interest in the social and physical world around them. Wide association through both television and direct experience provides a broad base of interest. The social

⁸ Arthur Combs, "Personality Theory and Its Implications," *Learning More About Learning*, Papers and Reports from the Third A.S.C.D. Institute (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, 1959), p. 9.

⁹ Emily V. Baker, *Children's Questions and Their Implications for Planning the Curriculum* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945), p. 169.

studies environment should provide for all the many leads to learning that children use.¹⁰

Children's concerns and interests require the use of social studies content. The way in which this content is dealt with—the procedures for learning—provides for meeting children's needs and society's demands.

The Learning Process

Stendler¹¹ points out that all learning involves four elements. These are drive, cue, response, re-enforcement. These four elements are essential in any learning.

Drive, or need, is the first essential. Drives are of many kinds, vary with individuals and with age level, and provide the motivation for learning. Parents and teachers make use of children's drives in many ways. Teachers must make sure that children's drives are utilized so as to produce no harmful effects.

Most drives stem from a basic physiological need—the need to survive. But, simple survival needs take on intellectual-social-emotional overtones that in turn create other needs—for recognition, for success, for status, for a sense of belonging or being wanted. No individual can meet these needs except in the relationship he builds with others. The children in one environment recognize "toughness" in language and behavior as a sure means to status and recognition. Another home and neighborhood environment places a premium on neatness, niceness. Yet children from such disparate, need-satisfying environments are sometimes found in the same classroom. What motivations do teachers use for children with such different patterns of need-fulfillment?

The second essential for learning is cue—the child must notice something. Perhaps the real task of teaching is that of helping children to see cues essential to the material to be learned. Calling attention to the placement of the letters -tion in the word motion provides cues for later encounters with all

¹⁰ Charlotte Huck, "Children Learn from Their Culture," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 13 (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, a department of the National Education Association, December, 1955), pp. 171-175.

¹¹ Celia B. Stendler, *Teaching in the Elementary School* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1958), Chapter 2.

-tion words. Cues in social studies are apt to be more complex. For example, children who have examined their own community and have discovered that environment influences the kinds of homes and clothing people use, that most people work to supply goods and services, that provision is made for recreation and government, have cues to life in another community. The study of one community gives children a built-in way of studying any community. Teaching the effective use of cues eliminates the need to cover all social studies content—an impossibility and long the bug-a-boo of teaching.

A third essential to learning is response. Children must do something about what is to be learned. Noticing the -tion in the word motion is not enough; frequent and correct use of that word and others with the same cue is needed. In social studies, one community is studied as a sample of how to study any community. But, cues for studying other communities and the procedures for seeking and synthesizing necessary information should be used over and over again—if the repetition is meaningful. For this reason, social studies tests out children's use of cues by providing a variety of activities that satisfy children's needs to do as they provide media for organizing and synthesizing information. Response in the spelling of a word or a number fact is easily checked. The process of using factual content in developing social understandings requires responses that have broad application. The understanding that man makes use of his environment can be approached through content based on varied factual information. Social studies should approach any desired understanding over and over again, by means of different content.

The fourth essential of the learning process is re-enforcement. Feelings are an important part of the learning process and children need a feeling of accomplishment, of satisfaction. Although teacher approval is important to a young child, the teacher must help him discover the satisfaction of knowing that he has accomplished what he has set out to do—that he has met the challenge of his own wanting-to-know. The beginning point is helping children discover purposes that are important to them. Peer recognition for accomplishments is another important re-enforcement.

Learning and the Social Studies

Learning in social studies, as in other content fields, is complex. It is complicated by the scope of content with which it deals, by the kind of thinking it requires, by the varying needs of individual children, and, most of all, by the complexity of the goals sought. The goals of social studies cannot be reached by memorizing any set of facts or routines. The teacher's planning must insure the use of content in such a way that each individual has ample opportunity to develop and practice behavior appropriate for living in a democracy. As each child brings his feelings and concerns to situations with which he must deal, his own understandings, skills, and attitudes will determine his behavior. We are concerned, then, with developing understanding and skills in ways that re-enforce democratic attitudes and actions.

Developing Understandings

When we set the development of understanding as a major goal for social studies, we are emphasizing the need for children to know and deal with a vast amount of information.

Understanding involves learning information, concepts, generalizations.

Information refers to factual content. There is a heavy emphasis on factual content in a modern social studies program. However, verbal mastery of facts is not the end goal. Instead, emphasis is placed on the functional role of facts in developing meanings.

Concepts are abstractions—a selecting out of and putting together again (differentiation and integration) that gives meaning to what is perceived. They are deductions and inferences made from analyses and comparisons. Their acquisition requires time filled with appropriate experiences.¹² They are expandable and take on added breadth and depth as children bring wider experience and more maturity to the abstracting process.

Generalizations are abstract relationships between concepts.

¹² W. A. Brownell and G. Hendrickson, "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalizations," *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), Chapter IV, pp. 92-126.

They are not derived from memorizing formal sequences of words. They are the product of the problem solving that makes the relationship evident.¹² Although generalizations are at a higher level of thinking than concepts—both are concerned with meanings rather than simple recognitions of simple fact; both deal with meaning derived from experience and lead to a verbal formulation of that meaning. The terms concept and generalization have come to be used interchangeably to some extent and are so used in this book.

Understanding develops as children use information and factual content in adding to, changing, and developing concepts. Long before children come to school, they are busy sorting out the mass of learning that has been presented to them in their immediate environment and formulating concepts that have meaning for them. Social studies seeks to further this process. Although the total school program carries responsibility for developing a whole range of concepts and generalizations, social studies carries heavy responsibility for expanding social concepts, developing time and space concepts, and for helping children develop adequate concepts of self.

Procedures for selecting appropriate content through which social concepts and generalizations can be taught will be discussed in Chapter 3. Concepts are not taught once and for all at any grade level. They extend through many exposures at increasing levels of complexity. Children begin to learn about the concept of interdependence when, as first graders, they study about school helpers. Later, studying the supermarket, third graders see interrelationship as a factor in our living. The meaning of interdependence is broadened as sixth graders study trade relations of the United States and South America. Another dimension is added when eighth graders study the United Nations. Content selection should provide opportunity for children to discover important concepts and generalizations, to deepen and extend them continually. Teaching procedures must provide the necessary opportunities. Brownell suggests that the course of learning any concept involves reorganizing learning at progressively higher levels, beginning with clumsy, inexact responses lacking in meaning to increasingly economical, expert, and pre-

¹² *Ibid.*, Chapter IV.

cise responses full of meaning. Not all children will move through this reorganization cycle in the same way or at the same rate.¹⁴

Concept development as such is not a problem for the normal child; the kind and scope of his concepts may be a problem for his elders.¹⁵ The major problem with teachers and other adults may be the urge to hurry concept development by giving children ready-made concepts. Although concepts are ultimately verbalized, children's ability to repeat a verbalized concept is no assurance that the concept has been mastered.¹⁶ For example, children learn the Pledge of Allegiance as a verbalized ritual. That it has meaning for them as a ritual is clear if one asks children how the Pledge makes them feel. Responses such as, "I feel proud," "I think of soldiers marching," "It makes me want to stand tall" are some of the feelings that children have expressed about the pledging of allegiance. Yet, the meaning does not come from the verbalizations. What children say as they pledge allegiance is often quite different from the meaning. "One nation and a vegetable," "and to the republic for Richard Sands" are some of the words teachers have heard. Meaning came from the feeling attached to the ritual, not from the words.

Even though concepts are eventually verbalized, a backlog of experiences is needed from which each individual "rolls his own" concept—a concept that grows and changes as new insights are gained. Attempts to understand a concept of time are described below.

Fifth grade children interested in pioneer life were making a collection of items that to them represented pioneer days. One child brought in a facsimile of a horn book, which was passed around for all to see and to handle. One girl stroked the transparent "horn" surface and asked, "Did a real pioneer touch this as I am touching it now?" Time began to take on a new reality for her. Another boy brought in a pioneer coin. He explained that it was very old (one concept of pioneer), that his grandmother had had it for a long time, and, therefore, he knew it was a pioneer

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 109-111.

¹⁵ David H. Russell, *Children's Thinking* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1956), p. 162.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 163.

coin! A budding numismatist noticed that the coin was dated 1908. The discussion grew. Was this a pioneer coin? Several opinions were expressed relating to dates of pioneer times. The coin expert argued that there were pioneers in Alaska in 1908. The discussion was becoming for many children a real thinking and learning process. Each child participating in the discussion already had rather fixed concepts of time:

1. Pioneer means before my time. Are there things I can touch and hold that pioneers touched and held?
2. Pioneer means olden times. My grandmother is old. Therefore, a penny she has had for a long while must be a pioneer coin.
3. Pioneer may refer to a fixed time. (None was sure of dates.)
4. Pioneer refers to a way of life as well as a time in history.

It is important to recognize that, although the child who brought the coin had had a fixed concept of time, as he was challenged for an explanation of what pioneer means he became aware of the gaps in his own thinking. In each child's attempt to clarify the meaning, uncertainties were exposed. The teacher played an important guiding role, her greatest contributions being her recognition of variation in the children's time concepts and her willingness to let the children themselves resolve their questions. She held the discussion open. The great temptation is to "tell" children, to replace the child's fixed concept with the teacher's fixed concept—something that has little meaning for him and that may prevent him from finding a basis for his own concept. Time concepts develop slowly, making it especially important to keep learnings "open."¹⁷

Conditions for developing understandings

Social studies is laden with information which children can utilize in shaping concepts and generalizations. Both the understanding reached and the ability to select and relate essential information in reaching it are important acquisitions. Because the process of developing and using them is an important part of

¹⁷ See references related to time concepts in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

social studies learning, factors which seem to foster both the process and the product need to be summarized.

1. Children vary greatly in the number and clarity of concepts they hold. Assessment of children's concepts (and misconceptions) in the area in which the teacher seeks to develop understanding is an essential beginning step.

2. Curiosity, doubt, and questioning on the part of children set the stage for learning. Time spent in providing a questioning, problem-solving atmosphere enhances the learning of concepts and understandings.

3. Developing an understanding is essentially a process of selecting and organizing pertinent information toward a goal. "Selecting" implies choice. For this reason, experiences of many kinds, provided for their relevance to the learnings sought, furnish the raw material from which children select the data to structure their own understandings.

4. Children vary in their ability to verbalize understandings with precision, another aspect in individual differences which must be considered. Understandings reached may be expressed in a variety of ways and many opportunities are provided for each individual to express the meaning of his experiences and information.

5. Understandings need to be tested out in new situations. Children need to experience the process of expanding and refining already familiar understandings. There is evidence to indicate that children who are "told" generalizations find more difficulty in transferring these to new situations than those who discover their own. While the latter procedure seems slower at the time, it is the most efficient in the long run.

Developing Attitudes

Attitudes determine action. Russell defines them as a readiness to respond and, therefore, a directive influence on action.¹⁸ Attitudes are often learned from emotional experiences and usually carry emotional overtones. They need consideration since they are strong determiners of behavior—a major concern of the school. Social studies is concerned with the attitudes that

¹⁸ Russell, *op. cit.*, pp. 170-179.

lead to effective behavior as a citizen and attempts to develop behaviors consonant with democratic values such as those listed in Chapter 1.

Children come to school with many attitudes already formed—attitudes derived from parents and others in the home. The teacher has a strong influence on attitudes of young children, often in ways of which he is unaware. For example, an “expert” teacher of first grade reading, who has prided herself on never having a reading failure in the first grade, is creating an attitude on the part of children that shuts them away from reading for their own pleasure and information. Children from her class can do reading lessons—they seldom voluntarily seek to read on their own.

Many of the attitudes formed in the early school years become firmly fixed as determiners of action. In later years, peers become more influential in determining attitudes. Teachers must recognize that attitudes about self may be determiners of attitudes about others. The concept of developmental tasks, discussed earlier in this chapter, is important because so many children’s attitudes about themselves stem from their success or failure in fulfilling these tasks at the appropriate point in the maturing process.

An unanswered question is the degree to which one’s attitude about self limits learning. The under-achiever seems to set no premium on his abilities. The elementary classroom should be a place where every child learns to deal successfully with challenge.

TV and other mass media

Attitudes develop through imitation (as in adopting attitudes held by parents or peers), by integration of many similar responses, by differentiation of specific attitudes through broad experiences, and by experiences that have dramatic, emotional impact.¹⁹ Children today are confronted, through television and through movies, with an almost continual dramatic bombardment. Even the commercials carry enough emotional appeal to

¹⁹ Gordon Allport, “Attitudes,” *Handbook of Social Psychology*, ed. Carl Murchison (Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1935), pp. 698–844.

influence children to demand "Crackle-Pops" or other products.

The extent to which television viewing contributes to attitudes and behavior is still not certain. Some people believe that relationships do exist between seeing crime and violence on TV and emotional problems leading to undesirable attitudes and behaviors, especially for the child who already has adjustment difficulties. Other people believe that the attitude of passivity, with less energy spent in creative activity and play, may increase emotional problems in children. Since television viewing seems to be on the increase,²⁰ it must be taken into account in planning for children. Teachers may be obliged to try to counteract passive learning through classroom activities. The social studies program can provide creative activity; it can also help to assess and judge information presented through television and other media.

Conditions for developing attitudes

1. Since attitudes stem from feelings, an emotional climate which furthers the development of desirable feelings about one's self and others is an essential classroom condition.

2. Children need some opportunity to recognize and discuss feelings, including those stemming from classroom happenings. Social studies deals with people; people have feelings. People and their activities observed or read about in social studies provide a basis for discussing feelings and how these influence action.

3. Motion pictures and stories with high emotional content help shape attitudes. This suggests that care in their selection and in their classroom use is important.

Developing Skills

Skills develop along with the acquisition of understandings and attitudes. Their development is an integral part of the whole process of learning in the social studies. Content and procedures in social studies are chosen to accommodate growth in skills as well as in understandings and attitudes.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, social studies helps further

²⁰ Paul Witty, "Some Results of Eight Yearly Studies of T.V.," *School and Society*, Vol. 86 (June, 1958), p. 288.

many skills, including those for which it carries major responsibility. Problem solving, including the ability to locate, organize, and use pertinent data, skill in participating as a group member, interpreting maps, globes and graphic materials, and interpreting time and chronology are some of these. In addition, social studies provides opportunity for using speaking, listening, and writing skills and for applying arithmetic skills. Although skills develop in relation to other learnings, the specific skills to be learned should be kept constantly in mind.

Conditions for skill development

1. Skills are best learned when they are needed. Learning experiences that require the use of specific skills should be provided.
2. Most skills are learned with greater efficiency when specific instruction is provided at the point of need.
3. Most skills are sequential in nature, although the sequence and timing vary in individuals. For example, children need experience with actual direction before they can interpret directions on a map.
4. Skills require meaningful practice. They should be used frequently in a variety of situations. They must be maintained and extended as children progress from grade to grade.

Instructional procedures that facilitate development of skills relevant to social studies are dealt with in Part Three.

Summary

If learning is to have lasting results, two factors must be considered simultaneously and inextricably: how children learn and what is to be learned.

Learning is a continuing process in or out of school. Under the direction of the school, it is focused on specific desirable outcomes and, therefore, requires careful planning. It is dependent on the quality of experiences provided and how well they accommodate children's growth and development in reaching goals to be achieved.

Teaching is the process that involves each learner in an active process of interest building, discovery, and application.

Through this process understandings, attitudes, and skills are developed, utilized, and expanded.

For Further Study

The essential task of the teacher is to help children learn. Observation of children in and out of school settings and further reading should lead you to some tentative guides to action based on some of the factors that influence learning.

Select an age-level for observation—a class group in school, if possible, or individuals or groups out of school. In what ways do individuals match the developmental pattern for that age group as interpreted from your reading? In what ways do they differ?

Describe some teaching incidents from your observation, from asking teachers, or from your own experience that you think illustrate the learning of an understanding, a skill, or an attitude.

1. *The influence of growth and development and developmental tasks on learning.*

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950 Yearbook. The whole book is helpful. Chapters 6 and 7 deal with developmental tasks.

Havighurst, Robert J. *Human Development and Education*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1953. Chapters 1 through 8 deal with developmental tasks of elementary school age children.

Jenkins, Gladys Gardner, Helen Shacter, William W. Bauer. *These Are Your Children*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1953. Physical development, characteristics, and needs of children at different age levels, simply outlined and discussed.

Redl, Fritz and William W. Wattenburg. *Mental Hygiene in Teaching (Second Edition)*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1959. Growth and development and other influences on behavior.

2. *The Learning Process: How children develop understandings, attitudes, and skills.*

Brownell, W. A. and G. Hendrickson. "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalizations," *Learning and Instruction, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I*, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. Pp. 98-128. The school's role in helping children deal with concepts and generalizations.

Combs, Arthur. "Personality Theory and Its Implications for Curriculum Development," *Learning More About Learning. Papers and Reports from the Third Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development Institute*, Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959. Newer approaches to the study of human behavior and what it means for educational practice.

Cronbach, Lee J. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1954. Chapter 3. An extensive outline of the learning process.

Lee, J. Murray, and Dorris May Lee. *The Child and His Development*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958. Part III, pp. 339-517. Five chapters dealing with ways of helping children learn.

MacDonald, Frederick J. *Educational Psychology*. San Francisco: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1959. Part Two, Chapters 4 through 11. A comprehensive treatment of learning concepts, attitudes and skills, and the problem-solving processes.

Russell, David H. *Children's Thinking*. Boston: Cinn & Co., 1956. Chapters 6, 7, and 8. Review of research on children's thinking and procedures for its improvement. Selected chapters deal with attitudes in relation to thinking, associative thinking, and concept formation.

Stendler, Celia B. *Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1958. Chapter 2. Extensive discussion of the four essentials of learning.

3

The Content of Social Studies

The selection of content that best serves to help young people toward participation in a democratic society is a constant challenge to teachers and curriculum workers. The goals of social studies are closely related to this selection process. Material from the social sciences can contribute to desired understandings, attitudes, behaviors, and skills. It is the very wealth of material that emphasizes the need for careful selection so that the total social studies program will meet both the expectations of society and the needs of maturing children.

Organizing the Social Studies Program

Courses of study and curriculum guides reflect several approaches to the problem of organizing content so that the broad goals of social studies discussed in Chapter 1 can be reached, but the tendency in recent years has been toward the *integration* of content from the social sciences. Over half the city and state curriculum guides examined in one study provided for an integrated type of social studies program for the elementary grades. In the upper elementary grades approximately one-fourth of the curriculum guides utilized social studies content in which all

learnings from the social sciences were combined. Responses from curriculum workers indicated preference for further integration rather than separation into subject areas such as history, geography, political science, and other social science areas.¹ In fact, integration of social science content with related content such as science, health, and the creative arts, and with language arts and arithmetic, is the common pattern for organizing the elementary school social studies program. Schools vary in the degree to which integration of all content is advocated. There is variation, too, in an individual teacher's abilities to deal with a fully integrated approach, even though such an approach seems desirable.

In the elementary grades, the integrated approach is an especially appropriate and commonly accepted procedure for learning because of the way young children learn.

As indicated in Chapter 2, the kinds of learnings that are the goals of social studies require much more than rote learning of isolated facts. For this reason social studies in the elementary classroom deals with subject matter from several of the social sciences and relates it to topics of interest to the children and appropriate to their level of maturity. Thus, children studying transportation will use content from geography as they learn about land, air, and sea routes; from history as they deal with changes in transportation over the years; from economics as they discover the effects of trade; from anthropology as they trace the influence of transportation on spread of customs and mores. In the process other learnings are also utilized. Reading skills are extended in satisfying the need to locate, assess, and use information; the need to share findings utilizes speaking, writing, and art skills; the need to understand the effect of various sources of power depends on science learnings; the need to make a map of trade routes to scale uses the arithmetic skills. The self-contained elementary classroom makes it possible for the teacher to relate many learning tasks.

Most social studies guides utilize two dimensions in organizing the social studies program. The first of these dimensions defines the common understandings to be developed throughout

¹ Frank M. Hodgson, "Trends in Social Studies in the Elementary Schools," *School and Society*, LXXX (September 18, 1954), pp. 85-87.

the total social studies program—to be re-enforced, deepened, and extended at each succeeding grade level. The second dimension defines the appropriate, grade-by-grade content through which these understandings are to be developed.

Social studies guides usually suggest both dimensions: the understandings that form the continuing integrating strands throughout the whole social studies program (scope) and the progression of different content from grade to grade (sequence). The curriculum guides presented in the charts in this chapter illustrate three approaches in defining common understandings and in allocating content appropriate for children's level of development and through which common understandings are to be developed and expanded as children progress from grade to grade.

Scope: Defining Common Understanding for All Grade Levels

The scope of the social studies program refers to the themes, problems, or understandings that are developed and expanded from grade to grade. These provide the integrative center for the total social studies program—the “big ideas” children deal with at increasing levels of complexity as they grow and develop. The scope of social studies may be defined in several ways; three of these are discussed below:

Basic Social Functions

Some curriculum guides organize the social studies program around the essential human activities through which men have met their needs as human beings living in organized societies. Statements of basic social functions vary but usually include the following functions taken from one of the early curriculum guides using this approach.

- I. Developing, Conserving, and Intelligently Utilizing Human Resources.
- II. Developing, Conserving, and Intelligently Utilizing Non-Human Resources.
- III. Producing, Distributing, and Consuming Goods and Services.
- IV. Communicating.

- V. Transporting.
- VI. Recreating and Playing.
- VII. Expressing and Satisfying Spiritual and Aesthetic Needs.
- VIII. Organizing and Governing.
- IX. Providing Education.²

The Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, curriculum guide (presented in the following chart) utilizes this approach.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS*

Scope	Sequence
1. Conserving Life and Health	Kindergarten and Grade 1: Living at Home and in School
2. Conserving and Utilizing Natural and Man-Made Resources →	Grade 2: Living in the Neighborhood
3. Producing, Distributing and Consuming Goods and Rendering Services	Grade 3: Using the Wider Community to Meet Our Basic Needs
4. Transporting Goods and People	Grade 4: Living in Our City and State
5. Communicating Information, Ideas, and Feelings →	Grade 5: Living in Our Nation
6. Organizing and Governing Group Actions	Grade 6: Living in the World
7. Providing for and Participating in Recreation →	
8. Providing an Education	
9. Satisfying Aesthetic and Spiritual Needs	

* *A Guide to the Social Studies in the Elementary Schools* (Philadelphia: School District of Philadelphia, 1956), adapted from pp. 10-11, 13-24.

Persistent Life Situations

Other guides are based on the belief that the source and nature of school experience must be determined by the situations

² *Santa Barbara County Curriculum Guide for Teachers in Elementary Schools* (Santa Barbara, California: The Schaefer Printing Studio, Inc., 1940), Vol. 2, p. 20.

the learner faces throughout life. These persistent life situations provide the integrative strand in the school program as they are met and dealt with by the maturing learner. They are defined by Stratemeyer and other authors in the following outline:

I. SITUATIONS CALLING FOR GROWTH IN INDIVIDUAL CAPACITIES

Health

- Satisfying Physiological Needs
- Satisfying Emotional and Social Needs
- Avoiding and Caring for Illness and Injury

Intellectual Power

- Making Ideas Clear
- Understanding Ideas of Others
- Dealing with Quantitative Relationships
- Using Effective Methods of Work

Moral Choices

- Determining Nature and Extent of Individual Freedom
- Determining Responsibility to Self and Others

Aesthetic Expression and Appreciation

- Finding Sources of Aesthetic Satisfaction in Oneself
- Achieving Aesthetic Satisfaction Through the Environment

II. SITUATIONS CALLING FOR GROWTH IN SOCIAL PARTICIPATION

Person-to-Person Relationships

- Establishing Effective Social Relations with Others
- Establishing Effective Working Relations with Others

Group Membership

- Deciding When to Join a Group
- Participating as a Group Member
- Taking Leadership Responsibilities

Inter-Group Relationships

- Working with Racial, Religious, and National Groups
- Working with Socio-Economic Groups
- Dealing with Groups Organized for Specific Action

III. SITUATIONS CALLING FOR GROWTH IN ABILITY TO DEAL WITH ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS AND FORCES

Natural Phenomena

- Dealing with Physical Phenomena
- Dealing with Plant, Animal, and Insect Life
- Using Physical and Chemical Forces

Technological Resources

- Using Technological Resources
- Contributing to Technological Advance

Economic-Social-Political Structures and Forces

- Earning a Living
- Securing Goods and Services
- Providing for Social Welfare
- Molding Public Opinion
- Participating in Local and National Government*

The curriculum guide for Newark, New Jersey (in the chart on pages 54 and 55) utilizes persistent life situations in determining the scope of its social studies program.

Concepts from the Social Sciences

The use of key concepts from the social sciences serve as another basis for determining the scope of the social studies curriculum.

Selection of the "big ideas" from the social sciences upon which instruction is to be focused is central to the problem of selection of content. Social scientists can suggest the key ideas from the disciplines they represent—ideas they consider relevant to society's goals. Teachers and curriculum workers can then determine specific content and instructional procedures to develop the key ideas in ways that re-enforce the goals sought. This approach to content selection was used by the California State Central Committee for the Social Studies in its study for developing a social studies framework for California. Social scientists throughout the state were asked to list important generalizations in their fields. From this list, approximately seventy generalizations were developed and used by study groups. Teachers

* Florence Stratmeyer et al. *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, Second Edition, revised (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957), pp. 155-165.

were urged to make use of the full listing of basic generalizations, but in order to simplify them, the original generalizations were synthesized into the eighteen concepts listed in chart here.⁴

The suggested framework on pages 56 and 57 illustrates how these generalizations are to be used as the scope of the social studies program. Their relationship to specific content is shown in the next chart.

Another report from a group of curriculum workers also suggests generalizations as a basis for content selection and identifies fourteen themes reflecting societal goals of American democracy. Generalizations—geographic, economic, historical, political, and socio-cultural—were outlined under each theme. The themes, developed in detail in the publication, were as follows:

- Theme 1—The Intelligent Uses of the Forces of Nature.
- Theme 2—Recognition and Understanding of World Interdependence.
- Theme 3—Recognition of the Dignity and Worth of the Individual.
- Theme 4—The Use of Intelligence to Improve Human Living.
- Theme 5—The Vitalization of Our Democracy Through an Intelligent Use of Our Public Educational Facilities.
- Theme 6—The Intelligent Acceptance, by Individuals and Groups, of Responsibility for Achieving Democratic Social Action.
- Theme 7—Increasing the Effectiveness of the Family as a Basic Social Institution.
- Theme 8—The Effective Development of Moral and Spiritual Values.
- Theme 9—The Intelligent and Responsible Sharing of Power in Order to Attain Justice.
- Theme 10—The Intelligent Utilization of Scarce Resources to Attain the Widest General Well-Being.
- Theme 11—Achievement of Adequate Horizons of Loyalty.
- Theme 12—Cooperation in the Interests of Peace and Welfare.
- Theme 13—Achieving a Balance Between Social Stability and Social Change.
- Theme 14—Widening and Deepening the Ability to Live More Richly.⁵

⁴ *Building Curriculum in Social Studies for the Public Schools of California*, (Sacramento, California: Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXVI, 4, May, 1957), pp. 46-47.

⁵ *A Guide to Content in the Social Studies*, Report of the NCSS Committees on Concepts and Values (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, National Education Association, undated).

SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM FOR KINDERGARTEN AND GRADES 1, 2, AND 3*

Scope of the Program

Experiences relating to those pupil interests and persisting or recurring life situations which pertain to the relations of human beings with one another and to their physical environment. These experiences should provide for continuing growth in the following:

Individual competencies

Critical thinking

Communication of ideas

Work study methods and skills

Social participation

Person-to-person relations

Group membership

Intergroup relationships

Ability to deal with environmental factors and forces

Adaptation to environment

Conservation of resources

Democratic way of life

Interdependence of man

Moral and spiritual values

Sequence of the Program

Kindergarten: Children's Interests—emphasis on Living Together in School

Living in the family group

Getting acquainted with the school

Exploring the school neighborhood

Learning to grow healthfully and to practice safety

Having fun with the weather

Enjoying play and holidays

First Grade: Living Together in the Home (and School)

Living together in the home

Living together in school

Living together in the immediate neighborhood

Getting ready for the seasons

Having fun and observing holidays at home and in school

Second Grade: Living Together in the Neighborhood (also Home and School)

Exploring the neighborhood

Living together in the neighborhood

Learning about buildings in the neighborhood

Learning about the various workers in the neighborhood

Learning about educational, recreational, and spiritual opportunities

Finding out about plants and animals in the neighborhood

Having fun and observing holidays in the neighborhood

Third Grade: Living Together in Our City—Present and Past

How do we live in our city of Newark?

How did the Lenax Lenape live on the banks of the Passaic River?

How did the early settlers live in Newark?

How did Newark grow from a charming village into the largest city of New Jersey and a part of a great metropolitan area?

A SUGGESTED FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL STUDIES, CALIFORNIA*

Scope

Sequence

1. Man's comprehension of the present and his wisdom in planning for the future depend upon his understanding of the events of the past that influence the present. →
2. Change is a condition of human society; civilizations rise and fall; value systems improve or deteriorate, the tempo of change varies with cultures and periods of history. →
3. Through all time and in all regions of the world, man has worked to meet common basic human needs and to satisfy common human desires and aspirations. →
4. People of all races, religions, and cultures have contributed to the cultural heritage. Modern society owes a debt to cultural inventors of other places and times. →
5. Interdependence is a constant factor in human relationships. The realization of self develops through contact with others. Social groupings of all lands develop as means of group cooperation in meeting individual and societal needs. →
6. The culture under which an individual is reared and the social groups to which he belongs exert great influence on his ways of perceiving, thinking, feeling, and acting. →
7. Democracy is dependent on the process of free inquiry; this process provides for defining the problem, seeking data, using the scientific method in collecting evidence, restating the problem in terms of its interrelationships, arriving at a principle that is applicable, applying the principle in the solution of the problem. →
8. The basic substance of a civilization is rooted in its values; the nature of the values is the most persistent and important problem faced by human beings. →
9. Man must make choices based on economic knowledge, scientific comparisons, analytic judgment, and his value system concerning how he will use the resources of the world. →

Kindergarten: Becoming Acquainted with the Immediate Environment.

Grade 1: Living Together in Home, School, and Neighborhood.

Grade 2: Living and Working Together in Our Community.

Grade 3: Discovering How Our Own and other Communities Are Dependent on Each Other.

Grade 4: Living in California.

Grade 5: Living in the United States and Understanding Our Relationships with Canada.

Grade 6: Life in the World Today. Introduction to Global Geography and Latin America.

Grade 7: Life in the World Today. Europe, the Mediterranean Area, Middle East, United States.

Grade 8: The United States and Our American Heritage.

10. The work of society is done through organized groups; and group membership involves opportunities, responsibilities, and the development of leadership.
11. Organized group life of all types must act in accordance with established rules of social relationships and a system of social controls.
12. All nations of the modern world are part of a global independent system of economic, social, cultural, and political life.
13. Democracy is based on belief in the integrity of man, the dignity of the individual, equality of opportunity, man's rationality, man's goodness, man's practicality, man's ability to govern himself and to solve his problems cooperatively.
14. Anthropologists hold that physically man is the product of the same biological evolution as the rest of the animal kingdom. Man is in many ways similar to other animals, but a most important difference exists as a result of man's rationality and in the body of knowledge, beliefs, and values that constitute man's culture.
15. All human beings are of one biological species within which occur the variations called races. The differences between races are negligible.
16. Environment affects man's way of living, and man, in turn, modifies his environment.
17. One of the factors affecting man's mode of life is his natural environment. Weather and climate that cause regional differences in land forms, soils, drainage, and natural vegetation determine the relative density of population in the various regions of the world.
18. Because man must use natural resources to survive, the distribution and use of these resources determine where he lives on the earth's surface and to some extent how well he lives. The level of his technology determines how he produces, exchanges, transports, and consumes his goods.

* *Building Curriculum in Social Studies for the Public Schools of California*. (Sacramento: Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXVI, 4, May, 1937), adapted from pp. 46-47.

The fourteen central principles and values, with sixteen to thirty-nine illustrative concepts and generalizations for each, define the scope of social studies. The committee working on the problem did not attempt to define the specific content through which the themes could be developed at various grade levels but did suggest that a full study of the themes by teachers and curriculum workers would lead to that content.

Sequences Extending Understanding Through Differentiated Content

Selection of content for social studies should answer two questions: "What are necessary understandings needed for children growing up in today's world?" (discussed in preceding paragraphs); "How can these understandings be developed, fortified, expanded, deepened as children move through a maturing process under the direction of the school?"

Selection of content requires much more than naming topics for each grade level. It must go beyond content valued merely because it always has been taught. It should be selected for its direct contribution to understandings needed by thinking citizens in a changing democracy. The scope of the social studies provides one dimension of social studies by suggesting the recurring themes or problems.

Sequence of content, grade by grade, provides another dimension. Under the school's direction, society can guide children's growth toward certain ideals. Content should lend itself to this cumulative process. Maturity of understanding and of behavior doesn't just happen; it is a growth process to which sequence of learnings in social studies should contribute. The sequence of content outlined in curriculum guides and courses of study is determined in a variety of ways; some of these determining procedures are described in the following paragraphs.

Logical Arrangement of Subject Matter

Earlier guides frequently utilized logical organization of the subject matter itself. For example, the logical presentation of history is from early times to present day—primary grades would

Grade 5—United States History and Geography; "Then and Now" Studies.

Grade 6—United States History and Geography; Our American Neighbors; Eurasia and Africa.*

Although the expanding communities concept is a commonly used determinant of sequence of content, it has some critics. One writer asks—

Do children really move from home to school to state to nation to world in their experiences? Or, do most of them push out the frontiers of their experiences irregularly, jumping via television, radio, and other experiences from home to foreign lands and back to distant parts of their nation before they ever go to school? Fathers and brothers who return home from military service with stories and souvenirs from far-away countries contribute to this irregular, haphazard but perfectly normal expansion of experience. Motion pictures, vacation trips, and moving about with parents as the family changes residence have an impact. These and many other factors in our fast-moving, modern world cause a child's horizons to be considerably wider and to expand in directions unthought of a generation or two ago. The principle of selecting and arranging learning experiences in terms of children's experiential background remains valid. Implementation of the principle requires a realistic appraisal of the experiences and needs of today's children.⁹

Meeting Group and Individual Needs

Another opinion is that a preplanned sequence of content cannot be imposed; that sequential development of social learnings results for children as they fulfill their needs to know and find out, in ways that are satisfying to them and at increasing levels of competence. Teacher judgment, based on thorough understanding of children and their learning needs, is the major

* Richard F. Bruns and Alexander Frazier, "A Survey of Elementary School Social Studies Programs," *Social Education*, 21 (May, 1957), pp. 202-204.

⁹ Dorothy McClure Fraser, "The Organization of the Elementary School Social Studies Curriculum," *Social Studies in Elementary School* National Society for the Study of Education, Fifty-sixth Yearbook, Part II (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957), pp. 140, 141.

factor in selecting what the group will study. Group studies develop out of the unique interests of each group of children. No attempt is made to have the studies follow a prescribed sequence of social studies content. As children deal with their self-determined studies they provide for themselves a continuing pattern of social learning.

... Children are maintaining continuity in their social learning if, as they meet new social situations, the learning carried forward to this point is undergoing transformations that make it adequate for the new tests being put upon it. They are maintaining continuity in their social learning if they are maintaining good feelings toward a self that constantly meets new challenges and conditions, if they are identifying with people in other times and places in ways they could not as younger individuals, if they are acquiring more mature skills of democratic problem solving as they encounter increasingly complex personal-social problems, if their store of socially useful meanings is growing adequately to meet new demands for mature behavior.¹⁰

The Bank Street School's program approximates group study procedures. It holds that:

Fundamental to curriculum thinking...are (a) understanding of the new and growing field of child development which includes a knowledge of maturity levels and needs, and (b) a belief that the environment (physical, social, cultural) offers the material of curriculum making.¹¹

Reports cited earlier from the State Central Committee for Social Studies, California State Department of Education, and "A Guide to Content in the Social Studies," developed by the National Council for Social Studies, indicate a growing tendency to focus on the scope of the program, with sequence resulting

¹⁰ Alice Miel and Peggy Brogan, *More Than Social Studies* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1957), p. 411.

¹¹ Charlotte B. Winsor, "The Bank Street Program: Child Growth and Learning in Social Studies Experiences," *Social Studies for Older Children*, ed. Loretta E. Klee (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, January, 1953), p. 76.

as expanding understandings are dealt with. For example, one guide for social studies lists the basic social functions as the scope of the social studies program. Of sequence, the guide has this to say:

The nature of the learning process and the general growth and developmental characteristics of each age level serve as guide posts to determine the "when," or sequence of social studies learnings. . . .

The young child in kindergarten or first grade is interested in his immediate environment—his home, school, neighborhood, and community. In the second and third grades, girls and boys have extended their environments to the more involved aspects of community life and the wider relationships of community living. Children in the middle grades have an ever-expanding environment which includes the state, nation, and the world. They constantly seek information about people and their activities, and about scientific and technological changes. Early adolescents are interested in their relationships with other people and can identify more closely with the world. They are interested in other cultures and the contribution these cultures have made to the adolescents' world. They are able to realize the responsibilities they must assume as citizens in a democracy, and to evaluate their own behavior in terms of the goals of effective citizenship.

A grade-by-grade sequence of learnings endeavors not only to meet children's needs, but also to insure a continuity of learning so that concepts and generalizations will develop gradually throughout the child's elementary years.¹²

Typical areas of experience are listed:

Home and Community Life Approached Through a Study of Transportation.

How Bread is Secured.

Modern Community Life Approached Through Trains as Carriers of Freight.

Life in Early California.

¹² San Bernardino County Board of Education, "Sequence of Learning," *Social Studies for Democracy's Children* (San Bernardino, California, December, 1955). P. 45.

Westward Movement.

Latin American Neighbors.

Industrial America.

People of the United States Building a Way of Life.¹³

Although the sequence is determined in part by the expanding communities concept, the implication is that teachers are free to choose content in keeping with developmental characteristics and specific needs of a given group. Specific content aims toward the desired understandings, skills, and attitudes. A further implication is that teachers have backgrounds in child development and in the social sciences that enable them to accommodate children's needs through appropriate content from the social sciences.

Legal Requirements

Legal requirements also help determine specific content in social studies. Most states prescribe the study of United States history, local history (and sometimes geography), and a study of the Constitution.¹⁴ This requirement is reflected in study of the United States at the fifth grade level and emphasis on United States history and civics at the eighth grade level. Because at one time schooling ended for many students with completion of the eighth grade, it was considered important to fill that school year with information about the ideals, principles, and historical background of American citizenship. Holidays and commemorated birthdays form a basis for instruction in patriotism in many states.

Legal requirements stem from specific concerns at a given time. While they attest to the general public interest in many facets of social studies, they are, in most states, too fragmented to provide a basis for continuity or scope in the social studies program.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

¹⁴ Ward Reescker, "Duty of Teachers to Promote Ideals and Principles of American Democracy," *School Life* (February, 1948), pp. 31-33. (Summary of legal requirements of each state is included in this article.)

Organizing Social Studies in the Classroom

Recent courses of study and curriculum guides (including those outlined in Charts 1, 2, and 3) provide broad areas for study but stress the importance of adaptation to individual classrooms. The guides outlined are typical of many guides in their emphasis on important concepts—the on-going strands—as the integrating factor in dealing with different areas of content at each grade level. The fact that the program for social studies is organized to provide integration of important learnings from grade to grade does not insure that integration is achieved within the learner. In the final analysis, it is the classroom teacher who determines the meaning to children of the social studies program. Organization of social studies curriculum guides and materials is useful only to the degree that it helps the classroom teacher deal more effectively with boys and girls in furthering the social studies goals.

Teachers in elementary grades must be concerned with the entire social studies program—its goals, its scope and sequence, and its procedures at all grade levels. For most teachers, however, the question of first concern deals with content—"What do I teach in social studies in my grade?" The limitless amount of information available in the social sciences presents an instructional problem. How can the elementary teacher be sure that the content selected for instruction is best for its purposes? What relevance will content have for a particular group of children? What evidence is there that any specific body of content is more effective than another in accomplishing the goals of social studies? What assurance can be given that expectations concerning common knowledge have been attained? As the fields of knowledge in the social sciences expand, how can important new knowledge be encompassed in the elementary program? The answers to these questions determine the procedures the teacher will use and, in turn, the outcomes of the social studies program.

Social studies procedures within the classroom put into operation the teacher's conception of the goals of social studies. These procedures vary greatly from teacher to teacher, but most teachers rely on textbooks, on children's immediate interests

and concerns, and preplanned units of work. Few elementary classrooms utilize any of these three to the exclusion of others, but in some classrooms, one may tend to dominate. The procedures used will reflect, to a degree, the organization of the social studies program.

Reliance on the Textbook

Mastery of textbook content has a long tradition in education and still prevails in many classrooms. The selection of a textbook determines for many the content, and sometimes the procedures, for social studies. Because adult materials from the social sciences are not usable in most elementary classrooms, their translation into usable elementary level textbooks is a valuable service. However, measured against the objectives of social studies, the best textbook is not enough. Its value depends on its use as an important tool, not the center, of the social studies program.

The textbook presents information and facts in a logically organized manner. But, it is possible that the development of information may hinder the development of understandings. As discussed earlier, an understanding must be "home-grown" out of a variety of experiences and facts that are the learner's own. The textbook as a single approach puts too much emphasis on verbalization. Every teacher has heard verbalizations that are empty of real meaning because there has not been enough experience to develop meaning. Children who have located a midpoint between the north and south poles on their slated globe, have themselves held chalk at this point and, by rotating the globe, have produced their own chalk line around the earth, know the meaning of the term "equator." They will not define it, as did one often-quoted child, as "a menagerie lion running around the earth."

Textbooks are concise. They contain a great deal of authenticated and selected information written for a particular grade level about a particular subject. But, this "reader's digest" in its very brevity may over-simplify events and issues that are extremely complex. Publishers themselves recognize this.

Textbooks are one of the burning issues in American education today. To the impartial observer, it is not surprising that they should be controversial. In the first place, they attempt the impossible. Within the covers of one reasonable-sized volume, they have to encompass an area of human knowledge that it has taken scholars thousands of volumes to explore. One historical event about which scholars may have written a hundred impassioned treatises attacking or defending a dozen different points of view must be presented in a textbook "completely, accurately and objectively" in one short paragraph.¹⁵

Children need to develop skill in intensive and extensive use of information, gathered from a variety of sources. Their individual needs to discover different things about one subject should be respected. Unfortunately, in life there is no single textbook to answer all questions about an issue; children need to discover this early in their schooling. The use of a basic textbook as a major determiner of content and procedure may defeat some essential goals of social studies.

Every elementary classroom should have a variety of social studies textbooks as part of its teaching equipment. They should be used as separate tools and not provide the basic social studies procedure. Further suggestions for using them will be found in Chapter 7.

Children's Interests

For some years, professional workers have advocated and used social studies programs built around children's needs. Learning is so dependent on inner motivation that only as studies center around children's interests and concerns can it take place effectively. Some teachers think that allocation of specific content at any grade level is likely to hinder learning and that there should be no preplanned content—that children and teacher should plan content and procedures together. Programs for social studies that place child interest first have been criticized as lacking in direction, difficult to handle administratively because of inability to have materials for instruction available, and too dependent on the preparation and, possibly, the whims of indi-

¹⁵ American Textbook Publishers Institute, *Textbooks Are Indispensable* (New York: American Book-Stratford Press, Inc. undated), p. 17.

vidual teachers. However, most teachers recognize the importance of children's interests if programs are to have learning value. Their planning has a double basis: What content furthers desired understandings? What content is appropriate for children? Their professional backgrounds give them knowledge of the kinds of interests most likely to be present at different stages in children's development as well as the professional skills to study specific groups and individuals.

Interests of children to some extent follow an age group pattern. But, interests stem largely from the environment and the opportunities it affords. One of the teacher's tasks is to search for and develop a common denominator of interest for most, if not all, of the children to use as a base for any study. At the same time, this study should be broad enough to further individual interests within the group. The teacher's insight is an important factor in determining which interests best further social understandings. Careful planning is required within schools, too, to insure that studies based on children's interests are thoughtfully analyzed as children progress from grade to grade. Content does not itself limit or create interest; it is the approach to it that develops and extends interests.

Unit of Work

In forging the link between the objectives and content of social studies and a particular group of children, the unit of work has long been recognized as an effective means of organizing learning. The term "unit of work," like social studies, has been with us for a long while. It has been subject to many interpretations in educational literature and even more in practice. The term itself is definitive: a selected distinct part, an undivided whole, upon which to exert one's energy. Hanna defines a unit of work in any area as: "A purposeful learning experience focused upon some socially significant understanding which will modify the behavior of the learner and enable him to adjust to a life situation more effectively."¹⁰

¹⁰ Lavone A. Hanna et al., *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools* (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955), p. 101.

Michaelis defines the social studies unit as: "A carefully developed series of child-like experiences related to a particular topic and designed to contribute to the achievement of the purposes of social studies."¹⁷

Each of these definitions emphasizes the two major factors of the unit of work. It is concerned with both content and procedure, selected for the former by society's mandate and for the latter by the nature of children and the process of learning. The unit of work is the unifying center toward which many related learnings are directed. It cuts across subject lines, utilizing content and skills from many other areas. Any of the content areas commonly dealt with in elementary classrooms—health, science, social studies—may utilize unit of work procedures. However, social studies is the area that functions most often as the center around which other learnings cluster. A unit of work dealing primarily with social studies content will utilize content from other areas too.

Content from the social sciences appropriate for the children involved is utilized in ways that develop understandings, increase power in the use of essential skills, and inculcate important attitudes.

Again, it is important to examine how children learn these things. Some reminders from Chapter 2 indicate that:

Understandings are much more than verbalizations. They are much more than facts, although they utilize factual content. They must be "home-grown" by each individual from the relationships he develops out of his own experiences. The important reminder is that teachers cannot give children understandings. They can only provide the experiences out of which children develop their own. Although units of work may center around any content, when we are dealing with social studies the experiences are designed to lead to social understandings. Thus, in planning the unit of work the teacher plans experiences to develop specific social understandings.

Skills should be taught in such a way that the progressive levels of children's development are considered. But, skills should

¹⁷ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. Second Edition (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1950, 1956), p. 129.

also be re-enforced through use. Economy in learning results when meaningful practice through use is provided. Again, this means thoughtful planning so that skills are needed, taught, and used at increasing levels of accomplishment.

Attitudes are by-products of experience and the feelings that accompany experience. The quality of living in a classroom—the feelings about one's self and others—is an essential ingredient of the school program. Although interaction experiences are provided throughout the school day, social studies can augment them in quality and kind.

There is some similarity in procedures for developing a group study based on children's interests or a unit of work selected from a preplanned area of content in which children's interests are fostered. In both, children are actively involved in planning with the teacher and in carrying out a series of learning experiences out of which understandings, skills, and behaviors grow. They differ in the degree to which specific learnings from the social sciences are determined and allocated, and the degree to which the teacher plans in advance.

Interest-centered studies require on-the-spot planning; units of work require advance teacher planning to assimilate and coordinate the later planning with children. Because the unit of work, well planned and thoughtfully developed with children, is an effective way of working with children in social studies, unit development is dealt with at length in the next chapter.

Summary

Social studies content may be organized in many ways. In assessing any plan for content organization two dimensions must be considered. The first dimension is reflected in the question: Does the content specify clearly important ideas from the social sciences to be developed in any and all grade levels? Well chosen social studies content contributes to broadly defined understandings and behaviors at all grade levels, and this contribution becomes a basic selection criterion.

The second dimension centers around this question: Is the planned content organized so that it is appropriate to children's maturity? Although it is important to select content for its contribution to the long-term goals of social studies, content should

contribute to these goals in a sequential, differentiated progression from grade to grade, taking into account the growth needs of children. Content should be broadly outlined so that individual and group differences may be accommodated. These two dimensions operate within the classroom, too.

Social studies, by the very nature of its content and goals, requires teaching procedures that can adapt to an active inquiring process. The teacher's concern, therefore, is to plan for the use of content that best accommodates children's immediate needs and concerns and, at the same time, fulfills long-term social studies goals. The teacher is concerned with ensuring that understandings are deepened and extended and appropriate behaviors developed through carefully chosen experiences.

For Further Study

A well-organized social studies program will make its daily contribution to the development of each child. At the same time, it must contribute to long-term goals. Therefore, the organizational pattern must make reasonably clear the relationship between content and goals and the relationship of plans for each grade to those preceding and following. In your examination of courses of study and curriculum guides and additional reading, what bases for determining the organizational pattern for social studies seem sound to you and why?

1. Comparing organizational plans.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapter 4. A clear cut presentation of scope and sequence in the curriculum, with a chart comparing sequence of unit-of-work experiences in eight selected city and county programs.

Hill, Wilhelmina. *Social Studies in the Elementary School Program*. Bulletin #5. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1960. Current practices and developing trends in social studies.

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapter 3. A discussion

of different approaches to organizing social studies programs, with suggestions for developing curriculum guides.

Klee, Loretta (editor). *Social Studies for Older Children*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953. Discussion of problems in developing social studies programs and description of some programs in operation.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 2. Types of social studies programs, with some guides to developing social studies programs.

Tiegs, Ernest W. and Fay Adams. *Teaching the Social Studies*. Boston: Cinn & Co., 1959. Chapter 4. General organization of the social studies program with brief descriptions of sequence of content from selected curriculum guides.

Willcockson, Mary (editor). *Social Education for Young Children in the Kindergarten and Primary Grades*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for Social Studies, 1956. Social experiences for young children. Typical programs described.

2. Determining the scope and sequence of the social studies program.

A Guide to Materials, Developed by the State Central Committee for Social Studies. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1958 (mimeographed). Concepts from the social sciences as a basis for developing a social studies program.

National Council for the Social Studies, *A Guide to Content in the Social Studies*. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1958. The Committee on Concepts and Values of the Council suggests fourteen goals of American democracy, with supporting concepts from various fields of social science, to form the scope of the social studies program, grades K through 14.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957. Chapter 6. An examination and evaluation of existing patterns for social studies programs.

Stratemeyer, Florence *et al.* *Developing A Curriculum for Modern Living* (Second Edition, revised). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957. Although the "persistent life situations" approach outlined here provides scope for the entire curriculum, it would strongly influence the social studies program.

PART 2

The responsibility for meeting needs of many individuals within a group setting requires thoughtful planning. The next two chapters present suggestions for planning social studies experiences and some suggestions concerning ways of working with children in classroom settings.

Planning for
Social Studies
in the
Classroom

4

The Unit of Work

Teacher planning for social studies has three phases: first, a long-range social studies plan for the school year suggesting tentative areas of study around which units of work may develop; second, before children are directly involved, specific plans for the decided-upon unit of work; and third, daily planning (although one day's plan may cover work for several days) in which children are active participants.

Procedures followed by one fifth grade teacher as she developed and carried out social studies plans for the year give clues to the questions to be considered.

Planning for a Fifth Grade Class

What are the peculiar personal and social needs of individuals in this group? Mrs. Winters began her planning by a study of her group of sixteen boys and twelve girls. They came from a high rental "apartment house" community in a large city. Parents, for the most part, were in the junior executive-managerial group, and most families had ambitions to move to the suburbs. Children, as well as parents, met the residential limitations (no yards, no pets, highly organized play areas for children) philosophically as the apartment was regarded by most as a temporary home for the next few years. The future loomed large for parents and children alike. With few exceptions, the children

were average achievers or better. They read well. All had lived in other communities, and several had lived or traveled abroad. They verbalized readily but were inclined to be egocentric; each felt that what he had to say about his experiences was of primary importance. Few were shy; most could hold the center of the stage quite comfortably.

What are the school expectations for content through which to develop understandings, skills, and behavior? Mrs. Winters knew that the course of study for the fifth grade in her school listed "Living in United States and Understanding Relationships with Canada" as suggested content to be developed. She felt that the general topic suggested for the fifth grade provided ample opportunity for these fifth graders to develop the understandings, skills, and behaviors suggested by the curriculum guide and considered important by her. She knew from working with many fifth grade students that high interest could be developed and that there was enough leeway to accommodate interests of her group. Textbooks focusing on historical development of the United States and others dealing with geography of North America were available in quantity. She felt that the year's work should be organized so that the children could have intensive study in some areas, even though this meant the omission of other areas. The units of study planned and developed to give meaning to content suggested by the course of study were these:

Colonial Life—focus on New England colonies.

Westward Movement—including the later migrations to Canada and Alaska.

Conservation.

Inventions—how they have changed living in the United States.

Selection was made on these bases:

1. The culture study of life in Colonial America provided an opportunity to explore how people lived in a "pre-industrialization" period and also allowed the children to try their hand at processing raw materials into finished products—making soap, candles from tallow, rugs from yarn and cloth, corn into cornmeal and corn bread, drying apples. These particular children needed activities involving making and handling things, and Mrs. Winters provided opportunity to use tools in building an interior

of a colonial cabin for a stage set. By doing things themselves, the children could learn to appreciate many pioneer activities.

2. The study of Westward Movement was an outgrowth of the earlier study of Colonial Life and focused on ways people organize themselves to accomplish goals. Reasons for taking the trail to Santa Fe or California or Oregon were explored. The more recent "movement" to Canada and Alaska was brought in to emphasize that people have continued to give up the old and to seek the new for the promise of a better life. Current events relating to Canada and Alaska were utilized.

3. Prior units of study had emphasized man's use of natural resources. Mrs. Winters felt that modern use of these resources needed emphasis—especially in regard to problems created by changing patterns of living. A unit of study on Conservation followed—focal points being soil and water conservation, petroleum, and lumber. This unit of study, she felt, also provided for developing important geographic and economic understandings about the United States.

4. The unit on Inventions was selected, in part, to provide a contrast to the earlier emphasis on handicraft culture and to point out the role of industrialization in the development of our country.

There were several areas of content that were not covered. For example, Mrs. Winters' group did not study the period of exploration, except as events related to it were utilized in developing their understanding of Colonial Life. Mrs. Winters felt that the ability to verbalize about explorers was not an important goal for the children. She hoped that an appreciation of life as it was lived then would give some depth of understanding to ways of living now.

For the same reason, the emphasis was not on "historical events" such as the Revolutionary War, Civil War, and so on, although these were touched on in all the units. Mrs. Winters' emphasis was on lives of people and how they were affected by these events.

Mrs. Winters recognized that children at the fifth grade level have little understanding of historical perspective—that it is the teacher's responsibility to develop it. Therefore, she maintained a time line (1400 through 1900) throughout all four units,

and as significant events were discovered they became permanent reference points on the time line.

What experiences will help this group of children acquire the insights for understandings and attitudes and practice in needed skills and behaviors? Mrs. Winters selected these units of study for a specific group of individuals. She selected certain content for experiences needed by these children.

1. Because these children lived in apartment housing where food, clothing, shelter, and even entertainment came ready-made, they needed opportunities to understand something of the processes through which raw materials become usable products. A purely verbal understanding, would not suffice. The Colonial Life unit provided the "hands dirty" kinds of experiences of building and processing and, through these, a large measure of appreciation for pioneers, who depended on handcraft processes to meet their needs.

2. The Westward Movement unit satisfied the children's interest in the zest and excitement of early days in the West (developed partially through TV and movies); in addition, it gave them some geographical and historical perspective. They could compare man's modern search for bettering his ways of living by modern migrations to their own needs and expectations. They developed the ability to be a little more analytical of the pioneer west viewed on television.

3. The children themselves lived in a highly mechanized society. The Inventions unit helped them realize how their own way of living had developed and to learn of the people who had contributed to it. It provided opportunity for experimenting and discovering some science principles.

4. The study of Conservation provided an opportunity to study intensively some of the facets of modern, industrial United States—its need for wise use of power resources, water and petroleum, soil and lumber. The children used community learning resources and related understandings to their daily life.

What evidence is there that desired learnings are taking place as the year progresses? Mrs. Winters was honest enough with herself to recognize that there were few facts which she could be certain all children had mastered. Nor was the mastering of the same facts by everyone her goal. For example, no child in her room was asked to memorize the forty-eight states and

their capitals. Yet, their interest in the addition of a forty-ninth state led to all kinds of study about how other states entered the union, and many children acquired information about states, their location, capitals, key cities, and so on in the process of their study. Mrs. Winters was interested in providing experiences that would provide as much information as children could manage. Each unit provided them with reasons for locating and using information.

Most of all, Mrs. Winters wanted to provide experiences of such quality as to develop understandings significant to each child, to provide growth in a variety of skills, and to demand both individual initiative and responsibility in working with others. These were, she felt, long-term gains, far outweighing in importance "covering" methodically by assignment-recitation each page and chapter in the available social studies texts.

Teacher Considerations in Planning

The experiences provided for this fifth grade did not just happen. They were carefully planned for in advance, with flexibility for variation as the teacher worked with children. As Mrs. Winters looked back over the year, she was sure that the children had a better understanding of their country past and present and that their learnings were accomplished in a way that created lasting gains in the ability to acquire, test, and use information and in working with others. Most important of all, she was aware of specific accomplishments of individuals within her group, and these were, to her, the real measure of a successful year in social studies.

The selection of appropriate content and learning experiences described in the preceding paragraphs have indicated some of the judgments the teacher makes in selecting specific content. The teacher, by the selection of content and experiences, tests out day-by-day his professional judgment concerning ways in which the individuals in his group can best develop into mature citizenship. Some of the bases for professional judgments may be determined by a review of the questions raised in preceding paragraphs.

What are the peculiar personal and social needs of individuals in this group? Teachers' professional judgments are based

in part on a knowledge of growth and development characteristics of each age group. They are also based on observation of children in and out of school, on a study of cumulative records of health, home, family, and school background. The teacher's personal judgment can be validated through observation of children in many situations and through the use of materials such as "Three Wishes," "What I Want To Be," and "My Favorite Person" described in Chapter 5. Sociometric tests, social distance measurements, "Who Am I?" tests, and so on supplement these observations in assessing social and interpersonal relationships. Data are usually available on reading, arithmetic, and spelling accomplishments, as well as an ability to express ideas. The teacher can also look into these questions: How are reading materials used? Is there evidence of ability to use a variety of reading materials? Is there evidence of ability to use reading materials efficiently—the use of titles, table of content, index, and pictorial content? Above all, is reading looked upon as an additional source of information?

Community influences impinge upon children and are reflected in attitudes and values held. In the fifth grade class described, all children had a common community background. In many classrooms value patterns differ among children or are inconsistent with values the teacher considers desirable. Study of the neighborhood and families is a necessary step in assessment of children's needs; it constitutes a starting point for the teacher.

It takes time to observe, study, and assess individuals and groups to determine instructional needs. But, all the "on paper" data is of no use unless professionally trained teachers use their professional judgment in determining a course of action. Any judgment, whether that of physicians, scientists, or teachers is based upon available data in support of a working hypothesis. The more sound the data, the better the hypothesis. Teachers need to be constantly aware of the considered judgments upon which they base a course of action with children. Time spent in observing children, in listening to them, in using a wide range of data gathering devices, makes the instructional task more meaningful and effective for both teacher and children.

Teacher judgments should be tentatively held, subject to revision and change when new information is available. Information gathered as a basis for professional judgment and action

is held in confidence. It is discussed only in professional settings—over the conference table, not the teachers' lunch table.

What are the school expectations for content through which desired understandings, skills, and behavior are to be developed? The course of study, or curriculum guide, constitutes the legal authorization for selection of content, and usually is planned to meet all legal requirements relating to social studies. As noted earlier, most guides suggest broad areas of study, leaving individual teachers free to select specific content for particular children in a given community. But, courses of study and curriculum guides provide more than official sanction for content. They are designed to reflect attitudes and values. They refer to procedures as well as content. The purposes and content of the total social studies program must be studied in order to determine how the work for a given grade relates to the over-all program. Most curriculum guides offer suggestions rather than prescriptions for content and indicate how much leeway the teacher has in content selection. Courses of study and curriculum guides are in need of continual revision. Teachers carry urgent responsibility for continual addition, deletion, improvisation. By the time any guide "gets in print," it reflects last year's thinking—and serves only as a springboard to today's and tomorrow's actions and plans.

Arrangements within the administrative units involved—the school, district, county, or state—require teacher consideration. Some of these administrative arrangements relate to the daily schedule and time allotments to various areas. Any limitations the teacher faces concerning these should be taken into account.

Administrative arrangements may also relate to materials and supplies and the availability of a variety of teaching resources. Is there text material available? If so, how much freedom does the teacher have in its use? Are other materials readily available? What arrangements are there for adding new materials as they become available? Plans for obtaining and implementing a wide variety of learning resources, such as those discussed in Chapter 6 should be clarified to give the teacher unhampered use of resources. The availability of and procedures for the use of learning resources of all kinds and at all levels should be ascertained, including current materials, maps and

globes, pictures, realia, and resource visitors. Legal regulations and arrangements required by school authorities for study trips must be determined. (For example, is a bus available and under what arrangements?) The teacher will want to know which movies, films, tapes, recordings are available and the conditions for obtaining and using them.

The teacher should also know what special service personnel is available to him. Curriculum consultants and supervisors, audio-visual consultants, school librarians, and school psychologists are some of the people who give valuable assistance in helping plan for social studies teaching.

Resource units, that is, units developed by teachers or others for general use, may also be available. Many administrative offices have resource units on file as part of their teachers' library. They provide excellent help but need adaptation to each classroom situation. If developed locally they are especially helpful in determining local teaching aids such as study trips, resource people, and so on. As their name suggests, such units provide the resources for the teaching unit that the teacher develops with a given class.

What experiences will help this group of children acquire the insights for understandings and attitudes, and practice in needed skills and behaviors? Previous sections of this book have indicated some of the ways children learn understandings, skills, and attitudes. It is clear that how children learn is closely related to what they learn and that the teacher needs to teach in terms of this relationship. For social studies, this implies a classroom in which children are active participants in a variety of experiences important to them, through which they are continually reorganizing old learnings in terms of new ones. These experiences provide for giving out, taking in, assimilating, organizing, and using information, and in the process shaping understandings, attitudes, and skills. Yet one must recognize that the elementary classroom presents some limitations. It gathers together many people of one age group within the limited space of one room. It charges one adult (the teacher) with directing learning toward certain specific ends within specified time limits. The dilemma faced by teachers is that of providing rich experiences that are both feasible within the limitations and that involve children as

fully as total learning experience requires. Part Three deals with the kinds of learning experiences that teachers in elementary classrooms have found to be effective.

What evidence is there that desired learnings are taking place? Because of the nature of social studies goals, the problem of evaluation is complex. Perhaps the ultimate test is in the quality of citizenship evidenced in products of the schools. However, elementary teachers need some assurance that the specific goals they seek are being fulfilled.

Evaluation should be based on goals sought. For example, Mrs. Winters knew what content she planned to deal with. She purposely did not include some of the suggested content in her year's work. She knew her reasons, based on her study of the children's needs, for including or omitting specific content.

Rapidly expanding areas of knowledge require that thoughtful choice be made. In most classrooms, information per se is not a major goal, and evaluation is directed toward all goals.

Evaluation implies that the teacher has a "bench mark" against which to measure progress in each area—much as the pencil mark on the kitchen doorway shows a youngster's periodic growth. Teachers recognize that growth proceeds along a continuum. Teaching in social studies seldom results in a finished product. Skills in map reading, attitudes about cooperation, behavior as a discussant, understandings about man's use of his environment, and many other facets of social studies begin early and continue throughout the grades. Evaluation is generally concerned with assessing progress rather than a completed task.

The teacher's problem of assessing effectiveness of the teaching-learning process is shared both with children and parents. As indicated later in Chapter 5, children share daily in assessment of the progress toward known goals. Chapter 11 indicates the kinds of evidence that teachers share with parents in assessing growth.

Selecting the Unit

Questions such as those raised in preceding paragraphs are preliminary to selection of specific units. Unit selection requires more than selection of content; it requires careful consideration

of many factors to insure that the chosen content and procedures have the strongest potential for maximum development for a given group of boys and girls.

Meeting Children's Needs and Interests

Of primary importance are the needs, interests, and background of children who will deal with the unit. If the teacher is planning for a group new to him, he will need to discover all he can about them through study of available data. This study will be valuable not only in social studies, but in his relations with the children during the entire school day.

Final decisions as to possible units and detailed planning should be delayed until there is opportunity to meet the children. Groups, as well as individuals, take on personalities (although teachers must be careful not to stereotype groups by labeling them too early or accepting labels as facts). Some groups consist of all talkers and no listeners, some of planners rather than "do-ers." Some have a group cohesiveness; others seem to be made up of individualists. Assessing and accepting groups as they are and making this a beginning point for change helps the teacher to determine the unit that will benefit most. Both in content and procedures, major criteria for selection of units should be the needs or concerns of a specific group of children.

Fulfilling School Goals

Another consideration in unit selection relates to the school's goals for social studies. Units chosen should provide for the development of desired understandings, skills, and attitudes; content and procedures should be selected to foster the needed development. It is important to keep in mind that understandings, as well as attitudes and skills, can be accomplished through any of a variety of units. Courses of study frequently designate a large block of content for each level. This sets the limit within which specific units are to be chosen. From this block of content, units chosen should provide a sample of how to deal with content in such a way that children will be able, in the future and on their own, to deal with other similar material. Children who have had, through their study, an intensive experience with

his selection. Within a particular grade, as well as from grade to grade, units should provide a variety of learning experiences. Units utilize content in different ways. A study of unit titles indicates certain kinds have been used at all grade levels. Although there is no clear-cut distinction, units might be classified as follows:

Culture units

The culture study focuses on people's way of life in a particular time or place. For example, *The Home, Our Neighborhood, Living Here at Salmon Fork, Life at Boonesboro, India, The Middle East* might be classified as culture units. A culture study involves as much experience with the processes, products, and ways of life as the classroom can encompass. Culture units have been criticized as tending to stereotype other cultures, of distorting concepts of people in general, and of emphasizing differences among people. Care should be taken that differences per se are not emphasized; it should be demonstrated that men meet their common needs differently because of the use of machinery or hand tools, because of environment, and because of their values.

Culture studies in the early grades are based on groups familiar to the children; a study may compare their own community with another with which they have contact. In elementary grades the study is not primarily concerned with factual content. It helps provide a reality base through which other cultures may be examined. Children today know little of the processes through which food, clothing, shelter, and other daily needs are met. Culture studies provide them with opportunities to study and try out some of these processes. Later, children explore cultures less familiar to them, usually beginning with a handcraft culture with emphasis on how differently goods are processed in a non-technological culture.

Culture studies in middle and upper grades should provide intensive study of a people with a significant role in today's affairs. Current information can re-enforce available text materials. A study of people of the Middle East, for example, should focus on present-day problems as well as on geographic and historical backgrounds.

Industry units

The industry study focuses on a specific activity that provides goods or services for people. The Bakery, The Supermarket, Getting In and Out of Our City, Aviation, Where We Get Our Food, Petroleum, Lumber—each of these units can provide for intensive study of one industry. In such units, interdependence of people, the use of science, the influence of geographic conditions are important emphases. Exploration of specific industries helps bridge the gap between the school world and the work world in which the children may find their place. Industries with some relationship to the local community are selected, thus ensuring ample resources for the study.

Cross-section units

The cross-section study usually deal with a basic service activity of people. Jobs Our Daddies Do, Trucks, Trains, Newspapers, Communication, Radio-TV—these are units that provide a detailed exploration of an essential service. In the middle and upper grades such a unit might include a historical study of the activity.

The kinds of units described all provide opportunity for developing important social understandings. Children should experience a variety of kinds of units. Some units should emphasize "depth"—an intensive study of an industry, service, problem. Some units should encourage exploration of a broad area. For example, a study of The United States and Its Products provides wide latitude for study and represents a broad area unit, whereas, by contrast, a Lumber unit presents an opportunity for intensive study. Finding out all about one industry and finding out a little about a lot of industries are both needed experiences.

Meeting Practical Considerations

Last, but not least, is feasibility. Are there enough materials available for use? Are there some ready possibilities relating the unit to things and people in the community or to happenings in children's lives? Is the teacher himself comfortable with the

content selected—does he have enough background of information, coupled with a curiosity to find out more? Teachers, too, should feel the challenge of wanting-to-know.

Planning the Unit of Work

Once the teacher has decided on the unit to be taught, he will need to develop long-range plans to guide him, or he may use resource units developed by other teachers. A resource unit, as its name suggests, is a compilation of possible problems, learnings, resources, and experiences related to the content with which the unit deals. It is designed for a particular grade but not for a particular group of children. It usually lists more materials and experiences than can be used by any one class. A resource unit is designed to help the teacher in planning the teaching unit he will develop for his class. The teaching unit is planned with a particular group of children in mind. It is adaptable so that children may share in planning its development with the teacher. Whether the teacher uses suggestions from available resource units or develops his own from scratch, he must have his own group of children in mind.

The outcomes of a unit—the content, procedures, and material through which these are to be reached—are too important to be left to happenstance. Time spent in advance planning fortifies day-to-day operation with children. Concern has been expressed that advance detailed planning may make unit procedures rigid—that it may prevent freedom of planning with children, but this is a misconception. A unit plan should suggest such a variety of procedures and materials to reach specified goals so as to provide for increased flexibility in the teacher's planning with children. A teacher who plans in advance, briefly and tentatively, several ways of organizing information gathered as children find out about Petroleum and Its Uses will be ready to follow children's leads. Should he encourage the children's suggestion to make a mural to show "How We Use Petroleum" or "How We Learned to Use Petroleum" or "How Petroleum is Processed?" Or, is this a group who are old hands at presentation of information pictorially? Do they need to think in terms of graphs that answer questions such as "What are the oil pro-

ducing countries of the world?" or "What countries are the greatest oil consumers?"

Planning for a variety of activities in advance helps teachers pick up leads from children and at the same time provides teacher direction toward activities and procedures that he thinks will provide for maximum growth. There is danger only if the teacher considers the plan an exact blueprint.

A Guide for Planning in Advance

The title

This delimits the content by specifying exactly what is involved. It should be stated simply. It should answer the question children so often are asked: "What are you finding out about in school?" Involved statements of a problem are not appropriate for elementary school children. The title on a display board in a third grade, "Our Community's Contributions to Our Nation" gives a pretty clear tip-off as to whose unit it is! The teacher might hope a community unit would develop such an understanding, but children are apt to say, "We are finding out about our community"—or "Lakeport," or "Riverville," or whatever the name of the community is. The title defines the content to be explored for the teacher as well as for the children.

Study of children

This study is an analysis of what individuals are like in a given group. As discussed earlier, it should include reminders of the general physical, social, emotional characteristics of age level and the specific characteristics of the particular group.

Aims

The general aims for social studies should be made specific if they are to affect the children involved. No one unit will accomplish all the goals of social studies, although each can contribute in varying degrees. What are the specific goals to be accomplished in the unit chosen? Social studies teachers too often lean heavily on wishful thinking that, somehow, studying about South America will improve Pan-American relations or

mastering the facts concerning early exploration of this continent will create appreciation for the American way of life. Specifying goals that have a direct relationship to the unit is an important step in planning. The goals of social studies offered in Chapter 1 provide a frame of reference. For example, goals for a unit on Westward Movement are specified as follows:

OBJECTIVES

ANTICIPATED GROWTH IN THE CHILD

Physical

- He gains in muscular control and motor coordination.
- He has increased interest in his own health and that of others.
- He consistently participates in activities, e.g., play, rhythms, construction.

Social

- He uses community property wisely and economically.
- He shows increased ability to serve as a leader.
- He shows increased ability to co-operate willingly and intelligently when a follower or leader.
- He shares his work and findings more willingly.
- He participates in solving problems cooperatively.
- He accepts help graciously.
- He respects the opinions and rights of others.
- He shows more readiness to accept majority decisions.
- He recognizes the importance of having every member of a group participate in the group enterprise and make a contribution to it.
- He grows in self-control.
- He grows in his ability to give and take constructive criticism.
- He shows increasing concern for the welfare of the group and more frequently subordinates his own interests to group interests.
- He accepts responsibility more readily and fulfills his obligations more acceptably.

Intellectual

Knowledges

- He understands the major events leading to the settlement of the West and sees their significance in the expansion of our country.

- He has reasonably clear insight into how pioneers met their basic needs and understands why we can meet the same needs today in a much different way.
- He understands the importance of courageous leaders in perilous undertakings.
- He understands why the pioneers moved to the West.
- He knows that the routes followed were determined by climatic and physical conditions.
- He understands the physical conditions which hindered and those which aided the pioneers in their migration and settlement.
- He understands the extent to which the pioneers had to depend upon gathering food from the regions through which they passed.
- He understands that the pioneers needed to be organized for protection and sees in their simple organization seeds of our democratic government.
- He knows how the pioneers struggled to help build the country and appreciates the hardships which they overcame.
- He understands the urge of the pioneers to improve their living conditions.
- He understands the American Indians better and has greater sympathy for their attitude toward the invasion of their lands by the white man.
- He understands time-relationships in the development of the United States.
- He knows the location of important cities and towns that mark the pathways of the pioneers on their way westward.
- He appreciates the fact that our life today is, in a measure, a product of the courage and effort of the pioneers.

Skills

- He uses reference materials more adequately and independently.
- He is more discriminative in selecting ideas from material read.
- He shows increased skill in sharing his ideas with the group and in expressing ideas in his own words.
- He shows an increased ability to add new words to his writing vocabulary and to spell them correctly.
- He improves in oral and written expression.
- He shows increased skill in using tools.

Habits

He shows an increasing tendency to plan his work before starting it.

He shows an increasing tendency to study directions carefully before beginning to execute them.

He proceeds independently when the work is within the scope of his ability.

He uses the library more frequently in seeking needed information and as a source of recreational reading.

He completes work that he has begun even though it may have lost its initial appeal.

He obeys more readily and promptly rules set up by the class.

He listens with greater attentiveness while others are speaking.

Attitudes

He understands and values the contributions of the pioneers to the growth of the United States.

He appreciates the hardships endured by the people who moved westward.

He comprehends the time involved in the settling of new territory.

He enjoys working harmoniously with the group.

GENERALIZATIONS

As a result of this study, the children should show growth in understanding of the following social concepts:

People confronted with common danger tend to organize for self-protection.

Wherever people engage in communal living, some form of government evolves.

The ways men satisfy their basic needs vary in accordance with the environment in which they live.

Nature supplies many of man's basic needs.

Man tends to follow rivers in charting his trek through unsettled regions.

The welfare of an organized group is dependent upon the co-operation of every individual in that group.

In planning his activities man has found it advantageous to take into account natural elements which he cannot modify, e.g., weather, climate, terrain.

Needs common to many people give rise to man's finding ways to meet these needs.

In satisfying their needs men have found that the trails made by wild animals have frequently proved useful.

The established stopping points of the pioneer caravans across the continent became the sites of many of our towns and cities. Throughout the development of our country there has been a close relationship between the location of natural resources and the location of cities.

While a new land is in the process of settlement, its rivers constitute the principal avenues of transportation.

Recreation is a common human need, sought under all kinds of conditions.

When one culture subjugates another, more or less suffering is inevitable.

Since pioneer days man has greatly improved his means of transporting and exchanging goods.¹

Evaluation

Plans for a unit should also be made so that its goals may be continuously evaluated. Evaluation of the unit is an on-going process, requiring daily assessment of accomplishments in which children share. However, it is important to recognize that the stated goals are teacher goals. The teacher may have in mind goals that are never made explicit to children. Children's goals as they progress through a unit quite often reflect things to do or find out. The teacher's goals are at a higher level of sophistication, accomplished through the goals children set for themselves. For example, when Mrs. O'Connor inherited a "problem" third grade, she looked to social studies as one means of developing some group feeling, acceptance of one another, willingness to share ideas. She recognized that this group, made up of children from three other grades in the school plus some newcomers, needed some common background of experience and a feeling of wholeness. A trip to the harbor, including a short boat trip around it, was planned. The children's goals were set—"We want to find

¹ *Teachers Guide to Education in Later Childhood*. Compiled by the Bureau of Elementary Education, State Department of Education, under the direction of the State Curriculum Commission (Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1957), pp. 258-259.

out about boats in the harbor, buildings we will see, people who work there." Mrs. O'Connor's goal was mainly the development of social skills in group activity, but she felt that no profit could derive from talking about this at this point. Consequently, she focused the children's attention on an experience, zestful in itself, through which they could define and accomplish their own goals at the same time that the teacher's goals for them were being fulfilled. This does not mean at all that the teacher "maneuvers" children into a course of action. Rather, she recognizes that some of the goals she holds for children are complex in nature and not easily interpreted for children.

It is important, then, that evaluation involve children's (and teacher's) assessment of their accomplishment of stated purposes as well as the teacher's evaluation of how well goals are being fulfilled. This evaluation should continue with the development of the unit. Although evaluation is an on-going process, the teacher will be especially concerned with reviewing the aims specified at the start of the unit. Using observation and records for comparison with an earlier "bench mark" can assess specific achievements for each individual. Children like to know that their aims have been fulfilled. The procedures used to close the unit sometimes provide this opportunity.

Possible problems

In planning the unit so far, the teacher's concerns for a particular group of children have been stressed. The next steps in planning deal more specifically with classroom operations—the working part of the unit. Based on the content as defined by the title and on the needs of a specific group of children, the teacher has developed some objectives to be accomplished—including a listing of desired understandings, skills, and behaviors. How will these be activated? The understandings to be attained provide a beginning point. Understanding is developed by each individual as he adds to and reorganizes information and experiences concerning things about which he had enough familiarity to have some doubts. The real beginning point, then, becomes the doubts—questions or problems—raised. The teacher should think ahead to questions and problems that may arise and, in fact, that he will do all he can to create. The advantage

to the teacher in this predicting of questions is that he will have considered *major understandings* on which he must help the children focus. Discussion for the purposes of raising questions should be open in order to involve children. But, in addition to helping children raise problems and issues, the teacher has a further responsibility—that of guiding them toward areas of relevance. The teacher's *guidance* of children's problem-raising discussion helps children learn to select a few problems from many, to determine whether problems are of interest to most of the group, to determine which problems provide good starting points.

For the teacher, some preplanning of problems also insures that there will be no hitch in the next step, and he will then be able to have on hand materials for use in dealing with the problems. There is nothing mysterious about this process. Any area of study in social studies deals with people—how they produce and use goods and services, how goods and services are transported and distributed, how resources (both natural and human) are conserved, how people educate their young, their arrangements for law and order, the cultural and religious aspects of their lives, their systems of communication. Depending on the unit chosen, some of these areas should be intensively explored. The teacher whose ear is tuned to the questions of significance can help children define problems of concern and develop their own understanding in the process of solving them.

Listing the kinds of problems that may lead to the understandings the teacher hopes to reach through the unit is an important part of planning. It should provide an important leeway for variation. Even though the teacher has listed a broad range of possible problems for his own guidance, questions coming from children may be limited to only one or two areas. These may be enough—at least in the beginning stages of the unit, since it is only through working on self-determined problems intensively that understandings are reached and skills and attitudes developed.

Learning resources

The problems raised serve as a springboard for developing understandings through the use of a wide variety of information

sources. The teacher's advance planning of the unit includes a survey of all possible resources such as the following, which are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

Books—state texts, supplementary texts, fiction, cooperative stories and booklets.

Current materials—magazines, free materials.

Films, film strips, slides, pictures.

Field trips, exhibits, museums.

Experiments, processing.

Resource people.

Realia, models.

The accumulation of a wide variety of learning resources is an important teacher task. Library resources within the school and district, availability of audio-visual materials, selection of text materials, current materials and free materials should be explored; people and places within the community who can contribute should be canvassed. Units developed by others furnish a good beginning in locating learning resources. However, the teacher will recognize that new materials and materials appropriate to a given group of children must be considered. Keeping up-to-date with materials of instruction and their thoughtful adaptation to the needs of children is an important professional task.

*Learning activities for using and organizing
Information*

An essential characteristic of the unit of work is that it uses information in many ways. Therefore, the teacher needs to plan in advance activities requiring the use and organization of information. Possible activities include those listed below and discussed in Chapters 8 and 9:

TALKING AND WRITING

Planning.

Discussions.

Conversations.

Reporting.

Taking notes.

Outlining.

Writing letters.

Writing reports, stories.

Creative writing.

DRAMATIZING

Dramatic play.
Simple plays.

Pantomimes.
Puppet plays.

ART AND CONSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES

Constructing settings for dramatic play.
Making models.
Arranging exhibits, displays, bulletin boards.
Making puppets and puppet stages.
Making murals, friezes.
Making dioramas, panoramas.
Making maps—flat maps, picture maps, “overlay” maps, relief maps.
Making charts—vocabulary charts, direction charts, comparison charts.
Making graphs—pie graph, bar graph, line graph.
Making a time line.
Compiling cooperative stories, booklets.

USING INDUSTRIAL PROCESSES

Preparing appropriate foods.
Processing cloth—carding, spinning, dyeing, weaving.
Processing leather.
Making utensils, etc.—clay utensils by molding or by slip process, wood utensils, baskets, candles.
Building (small scale)—log cabin, adobe, etc.
Handling tools.

MUSIC AND RHYTHMIC ACTIVITIES

Appropriate songs, folk songs, and folk dances.
Creative rhythms and songs.

Selection of activities for organizing information

Activities and projects have long been considered desirable for use in elementary schools. They came into use as information about learning processes indicated the need for children's active involvement. They tend to counteract the use of verbal expression as a major classroom tool. But, they too have been subject

to criticism, when misused. An early clarification of their use was made by John Dewey:

A succession of unrelated activities does not provide, of course, the opportunity or content of building up an organized subject-matter. But, neither do they provide for the development of a coherent and integrated self. Bare doing, no matter how active, is not enough. An activity or project must, of course, be within the range of experience of pupils and connected with their needs—which is very far from being identical with any likes or desires which they can consciously express. This negative condition having been met, the test of a good project is whether it is sufficiently full and complex to demand a variety of responses from different children and permit each to go at it and make his contribution in a way which is characteristic of himself. The further test or mark of a good activity, educationally speaking, is that it have a sufficiently long time-span so that series of endeavors and explorations are involved in it, and included in such a way that each step opens up a new field, raises new questions, arouses a demand for further knowledge, and suggests what to do next on the basis of what has been accomplished and the knowledge thereby gained.²

Activities are given a prominent place in social studies because they offer opportunities for children to develop and test information and understandings, skills and behaviors. Some activities such as planning, discussing, and conversing are an on-going part of the unit throughout its progress. Others tend to summarize some phase of the unit in tangible form. Selection of a suitable range of activities should be made on the following questions.

1. *Will it help children develop understandings, skills, and behaviors?* Wishful thinking is not enough. Activities are selected with certain goals in mind and must be tested on the basis of their contribution to those goals.

2. *Will it interest children?* Elementary children like to "be doing." They will happily repeat activities unless the teacher guides toward new experiences. For example, children will want to repeat a former success with a pin-on mural, but another ex-

² John Dewey, *Progressive Education and the Science of Education*. (Washington, D C. Progressive Education Association, 1928), 14 page pamphlet.

perience might be more appropriate. The goals the teacher has in mind and knowledge he has of the group and the individuals in it should influence the guidance he gives in helping children select activities. Children's interests need not be static—the teacher has a responsibility for helping his pupils discover new ways to synthesize and organize learning. Sometimes, too, trying out a different activity is as important for the teacher as it is for children. Planning in advance will help the teachers plan with children activities that appeal to their interests and also extend their range of experience. For this reason the unit plan includes several thought-out activities, although in operation a given class may carry out only three or four. Interests vary among individual children, and, as has been said, there should be opportunity for children to select the kinds of experiences that appeal to each. Here, again, the teacher's judgment is used. When does Tommy need to be prodded into new activities? Is a feeling of success so important for him that he needs the recognition given him when he works with art media time after time? Or, is he now ready for the uncertainties of another kind of activity? The thoughtful teacher thinks of children's needs first and plans broadly enough to meet them.

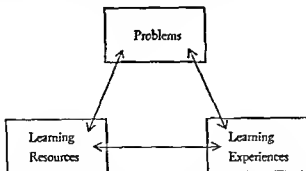
3. Do activities provide for a maximum of group planning and action? Teaching involves working with many individuals at once. Teachers are concerned with a way of working with many pupils in ways appropriate to the learning at hand. In the attempt to develop social understandings and social skills, group activities provide an effective means of utilizing the talents and abilities of all individuals. In citizenship—first in a classroom and then in life—the ability to solve problems of common concern is dependent on how individuals muster their resources in common effort toward common goals.

4. Can the activity focus on the process as well as the product? The activity is one which emphasizes the process more than the product. The "action" in the social studies unit provides practice in complex process of finding out, deciding, planning, executing, and evaluating. A word of caution seems important here. Because the teacher has done some advance thinking about possible activities, he must guard against placing too much emphasis on the product as the end result. What happens to children—their growth in ability to seek, select, and handle

information pertinent to the job, the interest and drive they exhibit—are the important results. The finished product is important only as it reflects these. The planning ahead done by the teacher insures only that children meet neither destructive failure nor too easy success.

Some teachers are concerned that the outcome of any activity should approach perfection. Children can raise their standards of performance, once they have analyzed what "standards" they wish to maintain. For example, children themselves can see that titles and legends on a map make the map more informative and interesting and so agree on a uniform style, print script, placement for titles and legends on all the maps they make.

It is well to recognize that the division of the working part of the unit into problems, learning resources, and learning experiences is an artificial one to simplify planning. Problems, learning resources, and learning experiences afford a continuum of action in the classroom. Progression from one to the other in order appears logical. Yet, progression through these, except in the teacher's logical plan, is seldom orderly.



This continuum of experience is reflected in a second grade study of trucks. Children in the second grade began a study of trucks when the teacher brought a few truck models into the classroom, and they began to play with them. After a short play interval, the teacher talked with them. In telling about their playing, several children mentioned that "my truck was going down the street." When the teacher asked if that is what trucks

do—"go up and down the street"—children began to think about what trucks carry and where they go. Since they were not sure, the teacher suggested that they might watch trucks go by. A field trip—a walk to the front of the school—to see what trucks carried was planned. In this case, the sequence was from activity, to problem, to learning resource. During the course of their study, this problem-raising, doing, finding out proceeded in a variety of ways.

For elementary school children, the activity—the "doing"—frequently is the springboard for further and more detailed problems and the need for information. In fact, the value of an activity can be tested by the number and quality of problems it creates which require greater depth and breadth of information.

Initiating the unit

Once the working part of the unit is planned, plans for getting the unit under way should be considered.

Some units start spontaneously out of children's interests. Unless the teacher can predict what these interest may be, such beginnings may not permit sufficient teacher planning. Predictable events such as the State or County Fair may lead to studies on Making a Living in Our State or Agriculture; Thanksgiving may lead to a study of Colonial Life; returning from summer vacation may lead to a study of Recreation. Events in the community also provide "starters." A dam under construction nearby initiated a study on Conservation in a multigrade school. The construction of a new overpass led a fifth grade to study Land Transportation in the United States. A house being built in the neighborhood offered a good beginning for a second grade to study Homes.

But, it would be unwise to use "happenings" only to determine the content of social studies units. The classroom should be a place where new interests are developed, as well as familiar ones strengthened. Teachers must take initiative to see that interest is aroused in new content. A preliminary field trip, a preview of a movie, or a story read aloud may be used to raise questions.

The arranged environment—use of pictures, books, models, "things" to see and handle in the classroom—is a dependable

interest builder. A "how-come?" attitude should be encouraged. As children are helped to question and discuss, the teacher should be careful to keep the discussion open—by inviting contrasting opinion, pointing out discrepancies in information, and finally helping children to "pull out" from their conversation and discussion some of the unanswered questions. Sometimes—especially with children in intermediate and upper grades—discussion of what is to be studied in social studies in a particular grade leads to topics of interest being singled out for study. Children themselves discover that you have to know something about a topic before you can decide what you want to know. Some survey reading becomes a necessity. Children are wise in the ways of school. They know that long division and a study of the United States are inevitable in the fifth grade. Teachers might help them discover that the ways of achieving the latter are many and varied. The initiation procedure provides a common background for the whole class—a focus of interests; it provides a basis for raising questions and problems for exploration and resolution.

Closing the unit

When children have worked intensively in a unit, they may wish to share their accomplishments with others. If activities involved art media—booklets, charts—they may wish to display the tangible results of their efforts. Dramatization—tape recordings, puppet plays—offer another way of sharing. The culmination may involve sharing accomplishments with each other. Sharing with another class, with invited guests, with parents offer other opportunities. The focus is on sharing "what we have done" or "what we have found out"—not on a finished production, display, or a publicity gesture. It is all right, too, for a unit to just stop. There is something pleasant about clearing out all evidence of an old interest to get ready for a new one. Some units slip easily into succeeding units without any break in continuity.

Summary

Good teaching requires careful planning. Good planning begins with the children who are to be involved and their needs and concerns. In preplanning a unit of work, the teacher con-

siders long-term and immediate goals for a particular group of children. His knowledge of these children and the expectations he holds for them are reflected in the content, procedures, and materials he plans to use. The scope of the unit, the problems through which it is to be developed, the learning resources and experiences through which children may gather, organize, and use information and ideas—all form the working part of the unit and are thought through in advance.

Procedures for involving children, for evaluating outcomes, and for completing and closing the unit are also included in the teacher's plan. This plan provides a framework for later planning with children.

For Further Study

A preplanned social studies unit of work is helpful to the extent that it helps the teacher meet the needs of a particular group of children (and the individuals in it) through a problem-solving approach using meaningful content and experiences.

1. As you read further and examine sample units of work, think about the advantages and difficulties in using this approach to teaching social studies.

2. Analyze one or two of the sample units to determine whether:

- a. It accommodates general growth needs of the age-group for which it is planned.

- b. The problems suggested define the scope of the unit and allow for wide exploration of the topic.

- c. The learning resources provided are adequate and varied.

- d. Activities for children provide learning experiences that can develop the understandings, skills, and attitudes listed as aims.

3. Begin planning your own unit of work for the grade level of your choice, using the outline given in this chapter, with emphasis on the "working part" of the unit. (Planning with others usually results in a better plan so you may wish to work with three or four others in developing a unit plan, sharing ideas as you go along.)

1. Defining a unit of work.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapters 5 and 6. Definition and characteristics of a unit of work and suggestions for its development.

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapter 4. Definition of units: resource units, teaching units, the advantages of unit teaching; procedures for planning and carrying out the unit.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 5. A plan for unit building with some essential considerations clearly stated.

Preston, Ralph. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School* (Revised Edition). New York: Rinehart & Co., 1958. Part Two, Social Studies Units, Chapters 5 through 7. Planning and teaching the unit. Several commonly used types of unit (classified according to content emphasis) are discussed: community, social process, region and culture units, units emphasizing the past.

Wesley, Edgar B. and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Revised 1952. Chapter 14. The theory of units and some suggested outlines for developing units.

2. Assessing group and individual needs.

Foshay, Arthur W. et al. *Children's Social Values*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. A description of action research in discovering children's social attitudes and values. Part II reports on specific values and what was learned about them, with suggestions for further study in other situations.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957. Chapter 4. Teaching social studies begins with children so knowledge about children is the base line from which planning for social studies starts.

Prescott, Daniel A. *Helping Teachers Understand Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1945. Chapters 1, 2, 3, 9, and 10. Ways of studying child behavior, as a family member, in group interaction.

Children with special learning problems:

The following three books are helpful in dealing with children with special problems of learning:

Cutts, Norma E. and Nicholas Moseley. *Teaching the Bright and Gifted*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1957.

———. *Teaching the Disorderly Pupil in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1957.

Kirk, Samuel A. and G. Orville Johnson. *Educating the Retarded Child*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951.

3. *Sample units.*

California Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Pasadena, Calif.: Vromans, n.d.

Living in South America in an Air Age—Sixth Grade.

A Study of the United States Through Its Products—Fifth Grade.

Our Community—Second Grade.

California State Department of Education. *Education in Early Childhood*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1956. Chapter 20.

Social Living Around Centers of Interest—Kindergarten.

A Study of Home, School, Neighborhood—First Grade.

Living and Working in the Community—Second and Third Grades.

A Study of Community Life Through Transportation—a unit for rural schools.

A Life Study of Pueblo Indians—Third Grade.

California State Department of Education. *Education in Later Childhood*. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1957.

Chapter 8—Helping Children Grow Through a Study of California—Fourth Grade.

Chapter 9—Helping Children Grow Through a Study of Western Movement—Fifth Grade.

Chapter 10—Helping Children Understand Their World Through a Study of Aviation—Sixth Grade.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Appendix.

The Farm—Primary Grades.

Early American Life—Fifth Grade.

Tiegs, Ernest W. and Fay Adams. *Teaching the Social Studies*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1959. Appendix.

Home and Community—First Grade.

Mexico—Sixth Grade.

5

Group Guidance in Social Studies

The teacher in a public school necessarily works with groups. He must respond to the needs of the individual and coordinate individual needs to group requirements. Meeting individual differences, selecting appropriate instructional materials, planning daily schedules, and maintaining discipline are some of the concerns he faces in planning to do as much for every student as time, energy, and wisdom permit.

Group size is a factor in the teaching-learning process. Studies have shown that maximum learning takes place in a class that is neither too small for effective interaction nor too large for informal interchange. The ideal class is one permitting warm, friendly, informal relationships between children and teacher. Because the teacher has a strong influence on patterns of group action, he needs to be constantly conscious of the nature of his control and its effect on class sub-groupings.

Class Size and Social Studies

Class size is an important factor in determining the procedures the teacher uses and in turn the quality of social learning provided by the group.

A class that is too large is not a good group from the standpoint of what happens to the individuals in the class. Good grouping should bring about

1. A feeling of belonging by making it possible to get acquainted.
2. A feeling of social adequacy by allowing an opportunity for participation.
3. A feeling of personal acceptance and personal recognition because of the closeness of working conditions.
4. Increased initiative and interest brought about by encouragement from the teacher and classmates.
5. Better evaluation by the teacher of the growth and development of pupils.
6. More happiness for all.¹

Most of these conditions would ensue if elementary classrooms were limited to no more than twenty-five.

The rationale for limiting class size, especially in relation to social studies, needs examination. Although small class size is conducive to more individualized instruction in some curriculum areas (arithmetic, reading), the benefits to social studies accrue in other ways. Social studies deals with human relationships both in content and in process. Children are challenged to exercise social judgment, to put to use a host of skills, to learn to discover relationships, and, in the everyday life of the classroom, to experience living in a microcosm of democracy. Interaction with other group members is essential for effective social studies and the class size must make provision for this. In social studies, as in other areas, teacher-pupil relationships are important and can best develop when the teacher has a chance to become well-acquainted with each child.

The term grade as a means of classification also requires clarification. In the public mind, grade frequently means a common level of achievement in all of curriculum areas. Thus, third grade means that all children have attained a common status. Even teachers may be inclined to feel a sense of failure when all third graders cannot read the same book or spell the same words. A more tenable conception of third grade is that it is the third year (or fourth year if the child attended kindergarten) in

¹ Raymond H. Harrison and Lawrence E. Gowin, *The Elementary Teacher in Action* (San Francisco, Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1958), p. 52.

school; its members are alike only in this one respect. We can expect these individuals in any grade to show variation in size, weight, interests, skill development, ability to deal with ideas. Probably, too, we can expect differences in school abilities in given classes to spread rather than decrease as children advance through school.²

The elementary classroom is usually self contained, with major learnings taking place under the jurisdiction of the classroom teacher. The teacher is thus enabled to see children whole and to provide for meeting individual needs through intraclass groupings and individualized instruction. Groupings within the class should promote group interaction. As a consequence, social studies groupings are based primarily on social needs of individuals and on their interests. In social studies, individuals and groups work in social groups, with little regard for specific skill abilities. Groups within the class contribute to the total class in its undertakings.

Groups in the Elementary Classroom

Children in elementary classrooms participate in many different groups as they play and participate in unstructured groups on a friendship basis. The latter is in many cases the outgrowth of neighborhood friendships and out-of-school play activities. Within school children may have opportunities to select activities on the basis of interests: the boys in the band, the traffic boys, the girls in the girls' glee club are some of the school-sponsored interest groups. Within the classroom, science interest, art interest, or reading or game interest may build a bridge of friendship between individuals. But, most groups are established by the teacher as a means of expediting the instructional program. The cluster of five individuals who need help in multiplication, the six or eight who are working on word recognition skills become achiever groups with specific goals in mind. In a class of thirty, many elementary teachers find that regrouping the class in three or four sub-groups according to their needs and achievement in

²W. W. Cook, *Grouping and Promotion in the Elementary Schools*, Number Two of the Series on Individualization of Instruction (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941).

reading, arithmetic, and spelling enables the teacher to provide an instructional program in these areas more closely approximating children's needs. Especially in skill areas where direct sequential learnings are important, a plan for grouping for instructional purposes enables teachers to use their time effectively.

When groups are skill-centered, when the teacher's instructional program is geared to needs, when individuals within groups feel a sense of accomplishment, when groups are kept flexible so that no one feels "sentenced for life" to a given group, achievement grouping is helpful. But, such groups are formed for specific purposes. For much of the day, elementary children have the need to identify with the whole group and with sub-groups other than specific instructional groups.

Social studies, since it is a center of the day's activities, can provide opportunity for many kinds of interaction. Bases for social studies groups may be friendship, interests, jobs to be done or a combination of these. Some critics believe that emphasis on group activities is a threat to individuality and individual accomplishment. This idea is an over-simplification of the meaning of group endeavor. The resolution of group-determined problems provides ample opportunity for the best efforts and creativity of each individual. Individual contribution is especially valued in social studies where the range and depth of problem solutions is limitless.

Group Problem Solving and Social Studies

Group solution of problems is influenced by social factors. Thorndike has listed some of the advantages and difficulties that enter into group problem solving.

1. The group typically brings a broader background of experience to a problem situation than does any single individual.
2. As a reflection of 1, the group is likely to produce more and more varied suggestions for dealing with a problem than will arise from a single individual.
3. The diversity of viewpoints is likely to be more representative of the larger population from which they were drawn than is the viewpoint of the single individual.

4. As diversity of background and interest within the group becomes greater, it becomes increasingly difficult to reach a real agreement among the members of the group as to the definition of the problem and the values to be served. Reconciliation of conflicting goals becomes a real problem.
5. Just as a group is likely to produce a greater range of suggestions, so also a group is likely to be more productive in criticisms of proposals and bases for rejecting them.
6. Interstimulation is a distinctive feature of group effort. The suggestion by X, which is criticized by Y, serves as the stimulus to Z for a new and perhaps quite different suggestion.
7. Interpersonal dynamics becomes a significant element. The assertive, the dogmatic, and the persuasive individual—each plays a distinctive role.
8. With increasing size and diversity of group membership, unity and integration of effort are often difficult to achieve. Group members may show a tendency to "hide off in all directions."³

The preceding paragraphs have emphasized problem solving through group interaction. The process of problem solving itself needs consideration. The many crucial international and domestic problems that citizens face testify to the importance of developing problem solving ability. Contributions of social studies to this ability must be stressed. It would also be well to realize that throughout the school day many opportunities grow out of immediate concerns.

"The big kids run through our playhouse and mess it up all the time," say the little girls and boys in a one-room rural school after play time. "Well, did you have to put your playhouse right where we need to run when we go after a ball?" say the "big kids." Mrs. Tillman postpones the next item of business until rights and wrongs are aired and a solution found. The "big kids" will take the next play time to move the playhouse under the apple tree at the back of the yard, providing the "little kids" will keep it there! Thus, an immediate and pressing problem is solved. An observer watching Mrs. Tillman help children reach their own

³ Robert Thorndike, "How Children Learn Problem Solving," *Learning and Instruction*, National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 209.

solution is impressed with her ability to keep hands off. She might have ordered a solution in the interests of "getting on with our spelling," but instead she recognized the opportunity for problem solving. Many occasions arise during the school day which require solution of problems important to part or all of the group. Usually these are *feelings* problems, and as with many social problems, often are resolved on values as much as on fact.

The unit of work in social studies is planned so that problem solving is an essential feature. During the course of the unit, ample opportunity arises to deal with problems of both types identified by Thorndike.⁴ These are: (1) practical problems, motivated by a need to act, and (2) intellectual problems, motivated by a need to know.

In the elementary school, the need to act often takes precedence. "We want to make a street for our trucks," say some of the second graders. Information becomes necessary for action: How many lanes? What is the street made of? Any stop signs? These questions reflect needs to know in order to act. This inter-relatedness of needs to act and needs to know provides for a variety of problem-solving activities. The teacher plans in advance—as he thinks of possible problems—for a variety of needs to know and needs to do, recognizing that this finding out, doing process is mutually re-enforcing. With this much security, he is free to plan with children and involve them in a variety of resources and activities.

As a result of some conversations with an Australian visitor, Mr. Richardson's class, a group of sixth graders, became curious about life in Australia—how people make a living, what there was to see of interest, how life there was like and different from life in the United States, and, most of all, how children their own age spent their days. Assuming responsibility for this last topic, some of the children decided to send a tape recording describing their daily lives, things of interest in their city, their plans for their future, and to ask for a similar one in return. Their first trial tape recording was criticized by the rest of the class. It didn't tell important things! Faced with criticism, those responsible first were inclined to quit "if the rest of you don't like what we do." They were reminded that this was an obligation they

⁴ *Ibid.*

had assumed. Then, to justify their choice of content for the tape, they became amateur social scientists and did a statistical analysis of hobbies, interests, their career choices, and those of another sixth grade class. In the process of taping their information, standards of speaking—quality and amount—were decided upon. Thus, problems of procedures, standards, behaviors, and information were met and solved as part of the major content problems involved in finding out about life in Australia. Problems raised became the concern of the total group and were so recognized and resolved.

The doing approach in social studies provides opportunity for problem solving—not to reach conclusions preordained by the teacher, but to involve children and teacher in an active searching process.

Providing Problem-Solving Opportunities

The elementary classroom provides preparation for many predictable skills. Letters, for example, must be written at some time or other by almost any adult. The school provides practice in anticipation of this need. Second grade children, wanting to share their puppet play on safety with another second grade, composed and sent a letter of invitation. Because it was a real letter, the practice in letter writing held vital interest. A verbal invitation might have served the purpose, but meaningful practice in letter writing was the teacher's intent. A social studies experience was used as a basis for instruction and practice in a particular skill.

There are many predictable problem situations for which the school can provide specific assistance by enabling school learnings, like letter writing, to transfer readily to general use. But, many problems of later life, are not predictable. They will require new, unknown responses. This is especially true of problems requiring group solution—social problems. Problems concerning the use of atomic energy, of automation and its effect, of living in a world where rapid transportation and communication bring ideologies into conflict—these are current problems unrecognized by an earlier generation for which no fixed solutions are available. Nor will today's solutions be applicable to-

morrow. The process of problem solving, as well as its product, is, therefore, the goal of much of today's teaching.

If children are to extend their abilities in problem solving as they progress from grade to grade, some consideration of the instructional role of the teacher in promoting this development seems essential.

The process of problem solving at any level must meet certain conditions.

1. Problem solving begins with an "itch" to know, to find out, to do on the part of the individual or on the part of a group of individuals. There is a drive to find out. Two points are important here: First, no one can "adopt" some one else's problem until he makes it his own. Second, a problem implies some advance information or experience as its source. Teacher preplanning for social studies, thus, is directed toward creating the setting—providing the experiences—out of which problems real to the learner arise.

2. Problem solving proceeds on the basis of hunches. The way to solution of the problem is unknown; a variety of possible solutions are tested out.

3. Problem solving requires new information or new use of old information. A prerequisite to problem solving is the ability to deviate from old routines and procedures in order to rearrange familiar information as new facts are encountered.

4. Problem solving ends in resolution of the problem, or, at least, a state of temporary satisfaction.

5. Problem solving provides solutions specific to a given situation. However, the teacher guides children toward problems in social studies whose solution offers broad application.

The process of problem solving is described in the following fifth grade study:

Helping children discover the effect of water conservation was the teacher's objective. She began a discussion of the community's new recreation area that had developed in connection with construction of a dam. For many children, the recreation area was the most important result of the dam construction in their area. As discussion proceeded, children began to question other results of its construction. Flood control, irrigation projects, possible use of hydroelectric power were scrutinized. In the process, problems concerning ways of gathering, evaluating, and

organizing information arose, as well as communication problems. The construction of models, charts, maps, and murals as means of organizing and sharing information presented additional problems. From time to time, there arose problems within problems—those related to ways of working, responsibilities of individuals and groups, use of materials. These required immediate solution. The process of dealing with the specific objective of the teacher—the use of the dam in water conservation—followed a sequence something like this:

Discussion of a topic with which children were familiar and in which they were interested—How we have fun at Coyote Dam Beach. This led to:

The challenge of unknown factors—Why was Coyote Dam built? What are all the results from building this dam? This required:

Locating, organizing, and using all available data—people, study trips, films, reading materials. This led to:

Problems of procedure—problems related to information arising from day to day. (For example, Can the County Engineer come to class to talk to us, or shall we send two class members to interview him? What questions shall we ask? How can we make our model dam really hold water?) Resolution of a problem frequently produced tangible results: a listing on the chalk board or on a chart of class decisions; a model of Coyote Dam; a mural showing effects of the dam on irrigation projects, flood control, recreation, power, etc.; a chart listing other dams in the state with comparative data as to size; charts used for a brief time—committee assignments, work rules, field trip information, and many others of brief usage. This led to:

Generalizing—dams anywhere will probably change a region in certain specific ways related to conservation of water and soil.

Children solved a problem that helped them to fuller understanding of something in their own lives. They learned the processes of problem solving of many kinds. Their problem solving resulted in understandings translatable to similar situations. Both the process and product of problem solving were "built in" for future use.

Developing Problem-Solving Behavior

If problem solving is one of the important outcomes of social studies, some attention must be given to procedures that foster or hinder development in this area. One of the first difficulties in developing problem solving behaviors stems from misconceptions concerning what is meant by the term problem.

A problem may be defined as a broad question for which no answer is immediately available, a question that suggests alternate solutions, that requires exploration and investigation for solution.

Solving a problem requires more than habitual or perfunctory response. Problems arise and are dealt with at any time during the school day. Problem-solving ability develops as children meet and deal with real problems—on the playground, in classroom procedures, in relation to each other, and in relation to ideas.

Procedures for problem solving have frequently been outlined as a series of steps; one such listing indicates three steps whose key words describe behaviors characteristic of reflective thinking: "1. Recognize and formulate the problem. 2. Collect and organize data. 3. Analyze and interpret the data."⁵

Comparison of these steps with unit of work procedures described in Chapter 4 shows the relationship of the latter to the problem-solving process. The implication is that unit of work procedures are designed to help children discover for themselves the processes of problem solving through continuous use of them.

Recognizing and formulating the problem

Problem solving begins with the reality of the problem to the solver. It must grow out of his own concerns and be stated in his own terms. Thus the teacher must be sensitive to problems as they arise in the on-going life of the playground and classroom. He should seek situations in which children are made aware of problems requiring individual or group solution. He must regard

⁵ Maurice L. Hartung, "Advances in the Teaching of Problem-Solving," *Arithmetic*, 1948, Supplementary Education Monographs, compiled and edited by G. T. Buswell, No. 66 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, October, 1948), p. 32.

a problem—even those planned for—as open to several possible solutions. Nothing kills the development of problem-solving skills faster than problem solving leading only to a predetermined solution planned in advance by the teacher. So, problems centering around action—problems of relationships, of behavior, or for carrying out group plans—provide vital problem-solving opportunities. But, children have curiosity about many things, and children's curiosity provides many opportunities for problem solving of an abstract, intellectual nature. Social studies can be organized to provide opportunity for these idea problems. Sixth graders trying to make wise use of a work period in which they are dealing with the origin and uses of petroleum link action problems with intellectual problems. Problems don't always just happen. The teacher must create situations in which they do.

Problem solving is an active searching process. It begins with the problem solvers' discovery of a problem, and one of the most vital roles a teacher plays is that of helping children discover problem possibilities. He may have to find and develop a common denominator of meaning for many children. On the whole, however, children bring their own unique and personal meanings to any problem—meanings sometimes at variance with those held by others.⁶

Social studies deals with specific kinds of problems. Through a cumulative process children should develop both skill in problem-solving processes and a fund of information and concepts that continues to expand through all levels of social studies.

Awareness of problem-solving needs and opportunities is an important phase of teaching. Unit of work procedures have sometimes been criticized on the basis that the teacher's preplanning of possible problems may lead to an artificial situation in which teacher's problems are imposed on children and, thus, lack vitality of motive. Preplanning, narrowly conceived, could have such results. However, broad preplanning can enrich the whole problem-solving setting for social studies; situations and experiences should be provided with the clear intent of raising problems related to social content and requiring specific skills.

⁶ For full discussion, see Lee J. Cronbach, "The Meanings of Problems," *Arithmetic*, 1948, (see above), pp. 32-43.

Problem solving depends on meaning. Three types of meaning difficulties that may interfere with problem solving have been suggested.⁷

1. Problems may be so laden with "emotional meanings" that direct progress toward solution of the problem is blocked. For example, solutions based solely on desire for teacher approval or "blaming" preclude thoughtful resolution of a problem. Miss Sharp's second grade decided to present their morning news in the form of a news broadcast—complete with announcer and commercials. The class looked forward to their first "broadcast." However, mixed reaction greeted the first commercial—for cigarettes. Most looked to the teacher for some reaction cue, some looked disapproving, others giggled with the knowledge that this didn't sound like "school stuff." After the broadcast, Miss Sharp asked children how they liked this kind of news sharing. Many expressions of satisfaction were heard. One child, however, said, "George shouldn't have talked about cigarettes." Another responded with, "They do on the real news broadcasts." When Miss Sharp asked why commercials were used, children moved from blaming or upholding George, or trying to guess the teacher's reaction, to a realistic appraisal of the purposes of a commercial. Some children recognized that the kind of audience determines the kind of product advertised. It scarcely needed Miss Sharp's question, "How many of you smoke?" for children to recognize that there were products more suitable to a second grade audience than cigarettes. Problem solving requires a social setting in which feelings are recognized, in which many solutions are considered, and a choice is made from among several possibilities.

2. The individual's habitual way of responding may influence meaning. Personality traits can interfere with problem solving. Rigidity in thinking is one of these traits.

Rigidity springs from a feeling of inadequacy. One keeps trying the same old solution because he is afraid of the naked feeling that he will have if he drops it and stands, for a moment, without a hypothesis. Only a fairly confident and secure person can discard an idea, with a feeling, "There are plenty more where this one came from." Moreover, rigidity comes from a need to

⁷ Ibid.

do well. If one can casually admit inability to solve a problem, it does not threaten him and he does not need to run back and forth in panic through his blind alley.⁸

Closely related to this is perfectionism. In social studies, where problem solving usually results in a solution subject to further change (in contrast to factual solutions of arithmetic problems that can be proved) rigidity and perfectionism block creative problem solving. The child who has only one response or is afraid to move beyond a familiar response to a situation should be helped to see and consider alternate procedures and solutions. The teacher's willingness to delay decisions until all solutions have been examined is a decisive factor in helping children develop the necessary openness.

3. The intrinsic meaning of the problem should be clear. "Meaning, like beauty, lies in the eyes of the beholder."⁹ Problems dealt with in social studies require much more than formal manipulation of words. Meaning often depends on experience. Problems and the understandings resulting from their solution need continued reshaping and rewording by many individuals to insure clarity of meaning.

Collecting and organizing data

As children progress through many problem-solving processes in social studies, their accomplishments are twofold. First, they develop a fund of usable information and understandings about man and his relationship to his physical and social environment. This is cumulative and never completed—even when formal schooling is. The second accomplishment is the skill developed in collecting and organizing information to reach understandings that are tentative and open to re-examination as new information comes to light. Both skill in the process and in its product are important goals.

Formulating a problem requires preliminary information and interest of enough intensity to carry children into the quest for information needed. As children proceed toward a solution, skills of locating and assessing information are required. In the

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 37.

⁹ *Ibid.*

process, comes the development of procedures for organizing, selecting, using, and structuring information. "Knowledge which is useful for problem solving is organized knowledge, organized on the basis of the structure of the field and in terms of significant generalizations, organized by the learner and applied by him in a variety of contexts."¹⁰

Thus, we must help children use the understandings they have developed at earlier levels and re-examine these with greater precision and with broader application at succeeding levels. Testing the reliability of sources of data, comparing the data, and evaluating its validity are all part of critical thinking. This process of collecting, sifting, interpreting, testing, is based on use of many sources of information—probably all those available in the school and the community.

Analyzing and interpreting the data

Problem solving must end somewhere, even if the "somewhere" is in a tentative solution. The tangible uses of information stressed in Chapters 8, 9, and 10 emphasize the many ways data can be organized and interpreted as a step toward verbalizing understandings. The picture book on *Jobs Our Daddies Do* at the first grade level, the mural about *Workers in Our Community*, and the tape-recorded play about life in a pioneer community at the fifth grade level all focused on understanding such factors in man's life as interdependence, the effect of environment, the ways in which common needs are met. They provided a tangible means of organizing and interpreting data. The booklet, the mural, or the play provided a focus for the information to be gathered and the decisions to be made. They provided evidence of conclusions reached.

The understandings were verbalized, too, although frequently in the individual's own words and seldom as a formally-worded outcome. In the process of finding out about, discussing, and drawing the pictures for the "*Jobs Our Daddies Do*" booklet, the teacher was satisfied that the understanding she had in mind were coming through to children. She heard the following comments:

¹⁰ Thorndike, *op cit.*, pp. 211-212.

"Look how fat our book is getting. What a lot of jobs fathers do."

"I just want to be a 'lectrician when I grow up."

"Yes, but there are lots of other jobs that have to be done."

Especially in the field of social studies, children must face up to and test solutions reached. Then the reasons why for the solutions must be examined. Teachers, too, must be flexible in their thinking. Because of the need for many routine procedures, classroom organization can sometimes promote rigidity and perfectionism and thus restrict problem-solving behaviors. How many adults have maintained an impoverished writing vocabulary because somewhere in their schooling they felt obliged to use a trite word they could spell rather than risk the red-pencil mark on a more meaningful word about which they were uncertain? The climate of the classroom must encourage questioning, and one way to do this is to free children from the terrible restriction of the right answer. In social studies, especially, conclusions must remain open to be continually tested and re-appraised.

Putting one's findings into words is not always a simple task. The mural, booklet, map, chart, or another tangible result provides an intermediate step toward helping some children to verbalize conclusions. But, just as the problem must be felt by the solver, so must the verbalized conclusion be his—an expression of his discoveries.

Problem solving must be thought of as creative thinking. Procedures for developing necessary skills and understandings are directed toward freeing children to use them in new ways. Because so many school tasks require instruction and practice and have tended to become crystallized into tasks requiring conformity (learn to spell words, learn addition and multiplication facts, correctly follow a specific borrowing procedure in subtraction, and so on), we must make sure that creativity, too, is cherished. Differentness is sometimes more important than sameness! Social studies can help in these specific ways:

1. Everyone's ideas and suggestions are important. In suggesting possible solutions to problems, many ideas must be presented and examined before a course of action is determined. Many times a teacher keeps *hands off* even when it seems clear to his mature eyes that one suggestion will work better than an-

other. His responsibility is to keep discussion open so that all suggestions have a hearing and are assessed by the children.

2. Consequences can be anticipated. Decision making in the realm of human affairs requires careful assessment of its probable effect. Within the classroom, decisions should be made only after predicting consequences of alternate courses of action.

3. Solutions should be assessed and tried out without too much reliance on the teacher's judgment. If the teacher always assumes the authority role, stepping in to countermand suggestions or procedures, the children may not realize the implications of alternate solutions, and problem solving becomes a mere guessing game. Children must learn how to handle failure as well as success.

4. Information and suggestions needed in problem solving can be contributed by everyone, requiring each person to assess for himself if and when his contribution is pertinent.

Grouping Children in Social Studies

Let us assume that the teacher and children have discovered several problem areas they want to explore. Several procedures are open to the teacher as he helps children organize for work. He may take entire responsibility for assigning children to groups, not considering the children's special interests in certain problems to be solved, problems in which they have some involvement. He may allow complete freedom of choice, if this can be handled so that the problems agreed upon by the class have some attention. If there is complete freedom in choice of problem or activity chosen, he may find that some children who are failing to explore new activities should be guided into doing so. He may decide on a compromise between these two plans by allowing children a first and second choice of committee assignment, with the teacher making final committee assignments within the choices made. In permitting children complete freedom of choice, the teacher assumes that all problems and activities have equal value for every child and that the thing to be done is the main objective. However, if he assumes full control, part of the zest for finding out may be destroyed. The objectives of both the children and the teacher can be met if they plan committee assignments together. For children, the objective is simple: "We



MAKING WALLPAPER. *These children are learning many things at once. Initiative, orderly working procedures, and responsibility are called for as they fulfill their plans.*

want to do—or—we want to find out.” Subsidiary objectives may develop along the way—“I need to know how to use the index so I can locate information about petroleum and its uses to finish my chart on Uses of Petroleum.” The teacher’s purposes are usually more sophisticated and may include several related objectives, such as:

Provide opportunity for small group interaction. Sometimes less verbal children may be reluctant to contribute in large groups but find it possible to express ideas in small groups. Small groups sponsor new and more varied friendships.

Provide opportunity for some children to find their role in a group. The outsider who has little skill in relating to others

can be placed in a group where he will have more opportunity to build satisfying relationships.

Provide many opportunities for children to be both leaders and followers in a variety of situations.

Provide opportunities for recognition of special talents, abilities, and contributions of individuals, especially for children whose success experiences have been limited. Some teachers feel that social studies groups can break down stereotypes of best, and poor which may have developed in excessive use of skill groupings. Social studies groups organized around interests and motivated by needs to know and needs to act provide an excellent and spontaneous opportunity for assessment of individual capacities and contributions on the basis of a wide range of accomplishments.

Social studies groups may also provide the setting in which talents are discovered and fostered. Intensive research in areas of interest can be encouraged through such groupings. In a seventh grade studying the lowland countries of Europe, one group was responsible for exploring the special contributions of this area. Two pupils took special note of the statement that Holland and Belgium are the diamond centers of the world. They prepared a special report for the rest of the class on diamond cutting—including an analysis of the meaning of carat—the industrial as well as the luxury uses of diamonds, the formation of diamonds by both natural and the recent artificial processes and diamond mining. The information about diamonds seemed important to these two; their sense of power in setting, seeking, and attaining their goals seemed an important achievement to the teacher—one of more lasting value than the information per se.

Teacher Judgment for Grouping

If grouping in social studies is to satisfy the teacher purposes indicated in the preceding paragraphs (as well as children's purposes), some bases for teacher judgment concerning need of individuals must be determined. Groups should be made up of people of similar interests and purposes but not necessarily similar ability. If they are, in addition, to provide experience in working together, the teacher will need information about the friendship relationships within the class. Observation of chil-

dren in the classroom and in play groups will yield some information. But, even the best guesses based on observation alone will not reveal the social patterns in a class as clearly as some kind of sociogram.

Using Sociograms

Sociograms are one means of discovering group structure and interrelatedness—measures of the roles played by the individual in his interpersonal and intergroup relations. Following is a sample of procedures based on Jennings¹¹ that might be used in making sociograms:

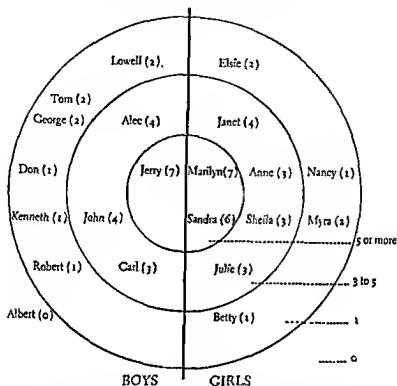
GETTING INFORMATION FROM CHILDREN. "We will be working from time to time in committees in social studies. It will help me arrange committees if I know with whom you would like to work. Put your name at the top of the paper and number 1, 2, and 3 below it. Opposite '1' put the name of the person with whom you would most like to work. You know that in a class of this size, it may not always be possible to work with the person who is your first choice. So, after '2' put the name of the person who is your second choice. After '3' put the name of the person who is your third choice. I will not tell anyone about your choices, but I will try to see that you work with some of the persons you have chosen."

For primary children, the teacher may ask children in private conference with whom they would like to work and record it herself. Young children's choices are apt to vary, although some teachers have noted that the first choices stay within the range of four or five children. One teacher, recording choices for her first graders, was astonished to find an almost unanimous choice for one little boy in response to her question, "Whom do you want for a work partner?" Then she remembered that, just prior to the question census, she had rather extravagantly and publicly praised him as a "good worker" in some writing of numbers.

RECORDING INFORMATION FOR TEACHER USE. There are several ways information can be recorded, but the two forms presented in the charts here serve as a ready reference for grouping purposes.

¹¹ Helen H. Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations, A Manual for Teachers*, Second Edition. (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1959).

MOST AND LEAST CHOSEN CHILDREN*



* The teachers will keep in mind the basis on which choices were made: for seating, for committee, or for other bases.

FOLLOW-UP. Children should understand that their choices will be kept in confidence. As little emphasis as possible should be placed on the gathering of this information. Arrange to do it before a recess, a "movie," or other distraction. Children should, however, feel the results of their choices later when committee assignments are made. The sociogram is meant to be used—not talked about. How it is to be used is a matter of teacher judgment. Children who hit the bull's eye in the target score have already found ways of establishing satisfactory relationships with others. *Outsiders in the circle or outside the target*

require special consideration in assignment to working groups. Although there is no pat prescription, they should be in the committee of their choosing or with friends they have chosen. Not only in social studies but throughout the school day the teacher can use the sociogram to experiment with promoting friendship-building skills. Why some children are less accepted than others is not always apparent. Observation of children in work and play situations and "Guess Who" tests may yield clues.

Guiding Groups

After acquiring information about their friendship needs, the teacher is ready to work with children in establishing purpose-centered groups. In the primary grades, there are usually transitory groups, forming and disbanding as tasks are taken on and fulfilled. In the unit on Trucks in the second grade, some children construct trucks, some play with completed ones in a "town" built of blocks, and others work on pictures and captions for a book about "Trucks on Our Street." Although these are the main tasks at hand, children move in and out of them from day to day as they complete a task at hand, satisfy their urge to do (as in playing with their truck), or become intrigued with new possibilities. Assignments to groups in the primary grades must be virtually on a day-to-day basis with children moving in and out of the on-going jobs.

In the intermediate and upper grades, groups take on a committee-type structure with specific children assuming responsibility for things to find out and to do over a period of time long enough to insure some depth of exploration. This on-going planning requires careful teacher guidance so that continuity is maintained. Committees or sub-groups should each have a strong purpose. They need time to plan for fulfillment of their purposes and time to activate their plans. They also should feel responsibility for contributing to the major purposes of the total group.

Guiding Daily Procedures

What goes on in social studies varies from day to day and from group to group as the unit progresses, even though the teacher has planned the possible problems, the resources that may be used, and activities that utilize information. The social

studies period, with its lack of set routine and its opportunity for interaction, requires careful teacher guidance if maximum self-direction is to result. Many teachers find that a simple pattern for the social studies period (with variation as needed) gives security to both children and teacher. Thus, the social studies period for most days would include:

TIME FOR PLANNING. This involves the whole group, aiding, suggesting, confirming plans made by individuals or sub-groups. It serves to keep the small groups aware of their responsibility to the total group. It serves to rekindle interest for some. It serves to add depth to planning, as ideas are presented, challenged, accepted. It serves to review what happened yesterday and to plan the next steps for today. It sets the stage for action: what is to be done, by whom, where, and with what materials. The teacher's role is to help children deepen their planning ("Do you think Tom's idea would work?"), to offer technical assistance ("if you're having trouble with papier mâché for your puppets, suppose I help you first today?"), and to encourage responsibility of each toward all the problems and jobs under way. The teacher should also act as chairman to make sure all committees are heard and as discussion leader to ensure that plans are settled before individuals and groups go to work. Usually this planning period leaves leeway for decision making about details to the group concerned.

TIME FOR DOING. Once plans are agreed upon, the individuals and groups take steps to fulfill the responsibility they have assumed. Sometimes the doing involves search for needed information; sometimes it involves organizing and using information in a mural or other art form, in dramatization, or in preparation of charts, maps, graphs. Frequently, in organizing and using information, new needs are discovered so that the seeking for information and putting it to use involves a continuum of discovering and solving problems. The teacher's role in doing is varied.

He is a technical adviser; for example, he offers advice on how to use chalk in a wet chalk mural.

He is a referee, listening to both sides of a plan and helping children reach a decision.

He frequently is an instructor; for example, he teaches how to use an index in locating pertinent information.

He is a "prod" toward rigorous search for accurate information. He helps children raise their own standards. ("Were all the covered wagons pulled by oxen? How do you know?")

And, above all, as busy as he is with the things going on in the room, he is sensitive to the interaction process and its effect on children.

TIME FOR EVALUATION AND CLEAN-UP. Just as children need the experience of planning, they need the experience of assessing for themselves how well the planned jobs are fulfilled, what remains to be done, and how it can be accomplished. Time for evaluation at the close of the social studies period usually focuses attention of the total group on certain questions. "What did we accomplish?" "Did we do what we planned?" The group can then consider what remains to be done.

The teacher's role is to keep evaluation open; evaluation procedures should not be routinized. Evaluation should raise problems—sometimes about the product (What needs to be added to the mural?), sometimes about procedures. When accomplishment for a particular individual or group is below par, work procedures must be considered. For example, the recognition that "fooling around" cuts down accomplishment is openly faced when evaluation reveals little progress toward a planned task. Children themselves can analyze the reasons for so little progress and reach decisions for a future course of action.

The Teacher's Role

When children are planning and carrying out their plans through a variety of activities, the teacher's role in guiding varies. He strongly influences the patterns of group-interaction, and he must be aware of the effect of his influence on sub-groups within the class. An analysis of some of the frequently used activities reveals the variety of guiding roles that he assumes.

DISCUSSION. Group discussion is one of the most commonly used media in social studies during the planning, evaluating, and sharing of information. By helping children to raise the level of their discussion, the teacher serves as a leader (often quite unobtrusively) encouraging them to—

Arrange setting for discussion (face to face, seated in a circle).

- Accept and examine different viewpoints.
- Get expressions of ideas from many.
- Recognize each contribution.
- Keep to the point.
- Deepen meaning.
- Summarize at times.
- Clarify decisions reached.
- Point out neglected areas.
- Organize ideas, using the chalkboard.

SHARING IDEAS AND EXPERIENCES. Showing, telling, reporting, and explaining are ways in which one person shares his special information with others to whom it is important. The teacher serves to—

- Help the group establish participator and listener roles.
- Set suitable standards for both participation and listening.
- Provide experiences that give a common background. (You are a better listener when you have a little information as a starter.)

RESEARCH EXPERIENCES. Reading, listening, looking, experimenting are all ways of finding needed information. Skill in locating, organizing, sharing, and using information is furthered as the teacher—

- Helps the group raise specific questions or problems.
- Helps committees delegate responsibility, decide on ways of sharing information.
- Helps individuals assume and carry out responsibility.
- Helps the group develop listening standards.
- Has suitable research materials available.
- Instructs in specific research skills such as use of table of contents, card file, index, pictures, maps, graphs, charts, note taking, outlining, reporting.

ACTIVITIES USING ART, DRAMA, AND OTHER MEDIA. An integral part of unit of work procedure is the use of media through which children organize and share significant information as they fulfill purposes important to them. The end goal for children is usually the product ("to make boats for our harbor," "to make a model of an oil well"). The teacher is concerned with the product and the process. His guidance, therefore, is directed towards both as he—

- Helps children define their purposes.
- Helps children define standards for working together.
- Has necessary materials available.
- Knows procedures involved—including pitfalls—and at what point instruction is essential.
- Plans so that all children are involved in an activity meaningful to them. (This means two or three activities in operation concurrently.)

Meeting Individual Differences

The grouping considerations mentioned are desirable features in that social studies creates an integrating force for the whole class, at the same time providing for small group interaction that cuts across skill groupings, play groups, and others. Some teachers find it difficult to accommodate a wide range of skill abilities in social studies groups.

Perhaps the most persistent concerns relate to the spread of reading abilities within interest groups and particular difficulties of finding adequate reading material for children with limited reading ability. Without minimizing the need for a variety of reading material at different levels of ability, there are other suggestions:

Concepts in social studies come from many sources, especially from real life. Time spent having experiences is usually more valuable than attempts to read information for which background is lacking. Children need many kinds of direct experiences to undergird verbalized concepts. Slow learners especially need to have a solid basis of direct experience upon which to base thinking and verbalizing. Thus, when children from a metropolitan area visited the National Livestock Exhibit in their city—during the morning hours before the crowds arrived—they saw animals being groomed and fed, talked to workers caring for the animals, had all the see, smell, touch, experiences that such a visit entailed. They were then ready to create their own stories—stories full of interest and meaning for them. The available reading material took on new meaning as a result of the new knowledge gained from their trip.

Children vary in their ability to deal with concepts. All children need reality ties to give meaning to concepts. Real learning takes place when children search for meaning; this

searching need not be in books. Second graders, exploring the use of the telephone, thought their fathers used it in their business. Milly stated that lots of people called her father. They called him about insurance. When questioned about why they called, Milly said, "Sometimes there's been an accident." Further inquiry revealed many misconcepts as children suggested why people called Milly's father after an accident.

Milly: "They want to pay my father some money."

Roddy: "Maybe a child's been hurt."

Larry: "Maybe someone's dying."

Milly again: "They want to pay some money to my father."

(She is aware of a relationship of money-insurance-accident.)

James: "If their car got all banged up, they'd want a new one."
(Getting closer)

Alice: "They have to get an ambulance." (The dramatic word accident really has clouded the concept.)

Don: "Well, when people have an accident, the insurance man pays to have their car fixed." (The best idea so far—but no one picked it up.)

At this point, the teacher asked Milly if she thought the boys and girls had suggested some reasons why people called her father. Milly only repeated her first statement, "They want to pay my father some money." The teacher then asked if the children had heard their parents talk about insurance. All had. He suggested that they talk with their parents about why people called Milly's father.

This incident illustrates two important points. First, ideas expressed verbally may hide many misconcepts, as did Milly's statements. They should be fully explored in terms of children's own experience. Second, what a wonderful nonreading source is available—especially to primary children! Fifty adults (parents of the twenty-five children) offer a vast reservoir of information if children are encouraged to tap it and thus deepen their own concepts.

Even though ability to deal with concepts and to use skills vary, all children can contribute to the class—both "ideas" and "things." In the example cited the variety of ideas about insurance that came from parents provided contributor roles for many children. In a sixth grade class, two boys developed a map of South America showing major exports of each country in ways

that indicated relative money value. From his reading one boy discovered major products by comparing texts with recent statistical information about exports; he devised a system of showing these on a map so that money value was reflected. His partner (a much less able reader) read just enough to learn something about the products, but his contribution was a map drawn to scale, legends neatly captioned, on which he placed information about products after careful planning by both boys.

Children should be encouraged to express ideas verbally and through art, construction, dramatization, and other media. Only as children test out their ideas can they find the flaws and gaps in them. Only as they live in an environment where there is time and freedom to express them will they grow in ability to deal with ideas.

Programs for more able learners can affect the entire group. Teachers' concern for children who are more able learners can be resolved by the social studies program, which affords many avenues for enrichment opportunities for this particular group in ways that enrich experiences for the whole group. Able learners can develop depth of understanding and develop and follow their own interests as they are challenged by problems raised in social studies. They need much more than extra "chores" to keep them busy or the privilege of doing things for fun because they finish assigned work faster than their companions.

Comments concerning an experimental school for gifted students reveal some essential conditions.

The teachers in the school would be guides and counselors—and no ceiling would be placed on any youngster's ambition.

Each classroom becomes a laboratory for finding out facts, for testing ideas, for learning by doing.¹²

These are conditions under which any student should have an opportunity to grow and learn. They are conditions especially appropriate for so vital an area as social studies.

Summary

The classroom provides a setting for learning the skills of group problem solving. A major responsibility of the teacher

¹² *Reader's Digest* (April, 1956), "Dr. Meister's Beautiful School," an article by William S. Dutton. Condensed from *National Parent Teacher* (June, 1955).

is the provision of group guidance that recognizes (and often creates) problem-solving situations and provides opportunity to resolve these situations using the talents and skills of all the children. Social studies provides many opportunities for furthering the problem-solving skills in many settings, in ways that help pupils become self-directing, socially responsible individuals. The role of the teacher as a guide in this process requires proficiency and insight.

For Further Study

Effective classroom teaching depends largely on the teacher's skill in working with children in groups. Therefore, an understanding of the dynamics of group interaction is essential. Good group interaction within the classroom can result in the development of the problem-solving behavior so essential to democratic living.

1. Think of groups of which you have been a member. From your reading and observation, what were some principles of group interaction and leadership that made these, in your opinion, effective or ineffective groups?

2. From your remembrance of your elementary school days, from observation of a class, or from discussion with a teacher describe a class problem-solving situation. On the basis of your reading and thinking, analyze the process used, its strengths and weaknesses.

3. Analyze the problems you have outlined for your unit. Do they lead to a full exploration of the area dealt with in your unit? Does each problem lead to important understandings? Analyze the kinds of problem-solving process that will result from the problems.

1. Working with children in groups.

Cunningham, Ruth. *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951. Procedures for improving the quality of group living in schools.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapters 8 and 14. Use of classroom groups to further democratic social behavior.

- Hock, Louise E. *Using Committees in the Classroom*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1958. Practical suggestions for committees in the classroom and how the teacher guides, expedites, evaluates.
- Jennings, Helen H. *Sociometry in Group Relations*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1959. A basic reference for sociometric techniques and their uses.
- Lane, Howard and Mary Beauchamp. *Human Relations in Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Part III deals with the dynamics of group living, but you will want to read the whole book.
- Lindberg, Lucile. *The Democratic Classroom*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. Chapters 1, 2, and 3. When children, with the teacher, identify and define needs and plan ways to meet them, they are learning the democratic procedures—the most important task of the school.
- Miel, Alice et al. *Cooperative Procedures in Learning*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. Chapters 10 through 14 describe ways teachers developed skill in the use of cooperative procedures with wider participation of pupils, more effective group skills, and better pupil leadership.
- Redl, Fritz and William W. Wattenburg. *Mental Hygiene in Teaching* (Second Edition). New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1959. Chapter 10. Group life in the classroom and factors that affect it.
- Rehage, Kenneth J. et al. "Participating in Group Undertakings," Twenty-fourth Yearbook, National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1953. Suggestions for improving and evaluating group participation in the classroom.
- Sheviakov, George and Fritz Redl. *Discipline for Today's Children* (Revised by S. Richardson). Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1956. Practical suggestions for effective teacher behavior with groups and individuals.
- Taba, Hilda et al. *Diagnosing Human Relations Needs*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951. Descriptions of six procedures used by workers in the project

on intergroup educations in diagraming gaps in social learnings of children.

2. Developing Problem-Solving Behavior

Bingham, Alma. *Improving Children's Facility in Problem Solving*. Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 16. (Alice Miel, editor). New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. This pamphlet offers practical help for teachers in helping children to use many kinds of problem-solving situations in the classroom.

Gross, Richard E., Raymond E. Muessig, George L. Fersh (co-editors). *The Problems Approach and the Social Studies*, Curriculum Guide, Number 9 (revised edition). Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960. Chapters 1, 2 and 3 deal with the theory and methods of problem solving, and its application in the elementary school.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapter 8. The classroom as a setting for group problem solving. Problem solving as an essential part of unit of work procedures.

MacDonald, Frederick J. *Educational Psychology*. San Francisco: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1959. Chapter 10. Full discussion of problem-solving processes, the effect of success and failure, of group interaction, of types of problems to be solved, and how the school helps develop problem-solving behavior.

Russell, David H. *Children's Thinking*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1956. Chapter 9. The kinds of thinking involved in problem solving.

Strang, Ruth. *Group Work in Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958.

Thorndike, Robert. "How Children Learn Problem Solving," *Learning and Instruction*, National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950. Pp. 192-217. How classroom procedures can further problem-solving skills.

PART 3

The school was once referred to as a “knowledge-box”—the six-sided box within which many drab, routine learnings were enforced. Teachers today reach far beyond the classroom to provide learning resources. These resources fit into two categories: learning resources through which children acquire information and experiences that help them to organize and use information. The next four chapters deal with both types.

Social Studies
in Action
in the
Classroom

6

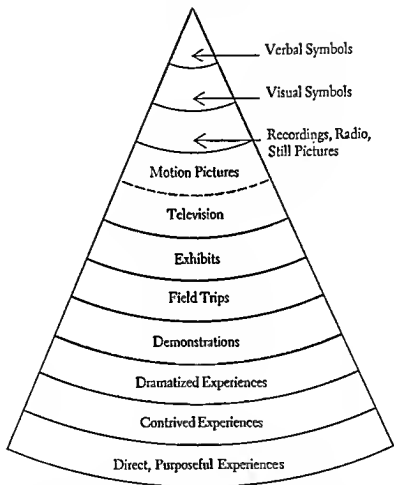
Learning Through Doing, Looking, and Listening

Use of a wide variety of learning resources within the elementary classroom has paralleled the wide dissemination of information and knowledge in everyday life. Newspapers, periodicals, radio, and television make new information almost instantly available, and place on everyone the burden of assessing, assimilating, and utilizing facts and ideas from many sources. Because the study of social studies is concerned with helping children develop understandings about the world they live in, it must develop a broad base of information. At the same time it develops research skills that make it possible to expand and reshape understandings as new facts become available. The use of many sources of information is therefore essential.

The diagram on the next page suggests the kinds of experiences that should be used as resources for learning in social studies at all levels.

The importance of using learning resources selected at every step of the cone in every elementary classroom is apparent. For one thing, even the best classroom takes children away from the experiences they might be having if there were no school. The six-year-old might go shopping with mother (with all the sights, sounds, and smells this entails), talk to the postman, pet and

CONE OF EXPERIENCE*



* Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. (New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., Revised 1959), p. 42.

play with a dog or cat in the neighborhood, watch television, and so on. Although the classroom provides a series of carefully selected learning experiences, we must also recognize that it does shut children away from the random and varied experiences

they would find for themselves in out-of-school life. The inclusion of a variety of experiences within the classroom is an attempt to pay back in experience for the limitations imposed by four walls.

Newer concepts of learning also dictate the use of varied resources. In social studies, especially, the focus is on the use of information in developing understandings. An understanding is something each person has to grow for himself. It is not the same thing as memorizing a fact. One can learn to pronounce "Brazil" and spell it by direct instruction, but the understanding each fifth or sixth grader develops about the lives of people there will be filled with many meanings derived from many sources. It will be determined in part by the whole congeries of understandings he has previously attained.

The use of varied learning resources is also important for insuring the continual change and growth of children's understandings in the field of social studies. Facts in the social sciences don't stand still, and a fact learned today may not be true tomorrow. Because of "facts" learned in his childhood, an adult may think Brazil the main source of our rubber supply. Yet the Statistical Abstract published by the Department of Commerce of the United States has for many years indicated that the chief source of rubber for the United States is the Malay Peninsula. And, if we set about to remember this fact, we would probably soon be out of date with the current trend toward use of synthetic rubber! The point is that the use of many sources of information will help young people get the habit of contrasting and comparing information, of assessing and evaluating it, and noting new information as it develops.

Every teacher is well aware of the many different levels of ability present in an elementary classroom, even those supposedly homogeneous. Instructional materials to satisfy these many abilities are essential. Children vary in the way they learn. Some respond best to the more direct kinds of experiences; others handle reading materials with facility. Social studies provides opportunity for each to develop understanding with the kinds of learning resources he uses best. At the same time, each child is encouraged to use many sources of information and so develop new ways of learning.

Experiences Involving Doing

Although reading continues to occupy an important role as a learning resource, social studies in the elementary classroom places increasing emphasis on the more direct kinds of learning resources. Making butter, bread, or candles; building a playhouse, a model of a covered wagon, a stage set for a puppet show; playing out in dramatic play what goes on at the airport or around the pioneer's campfire are samples of direct kinds of learning experiences. The children learn by doing—by coordinating their existing knowledge with the acquisition of new knowledge (and perhaps new skills) in the accomplishment of their task.

Teachers tend to use direct participation experiences more freely in the primary grades than in middle and upper grades. Growth needs—the need for large muscle movement, the need to explore and handle things, the need for learning to relate to others—are more obvious in younger pupils. Direct participation is the major learning resource open to young children who have not yet learned to deal with reading materials as sources of information. However, older children who can read with some proficiency should not be denied the direct-participating types of experience that help them build meaning in a variety of ways. The increasing amount and complexity of social studies content in middle and upper grades requires a variety of learning experiences if children are to develop depth of meaning. As with any learning activity, direct experiences are chosen for their relevance to learnings to be attained.

There is good reason for providing the direct experience kinds of activities within the classroom at all levels. The processing of materials is often used. For example, a fifth grade class studying Pioneer Life was provided an opportunity to learn about leather tanning. Perhaps unfortunately, the leather was not a deer skin (like the buckskin garb of their favorite TV characters) but a calf skin from a nearby stockyard. A sub-group or leather committee, in going through the messy, smelly steps of soaking, scraping, drying, communicated to the whole class two things: one, people today are using the same process used long ago (in a modernized version) for leather shoes and belts; and two, a new respect for pioneers. The children considered pioneers

heroic not only because of their adventurous exploits (as popularized by movies and television), but also for facing the hardships and meeting the needs of their daily lives.

Not every experience needs to be as smelly and messy as the one described. Other processing procedures such as churning butter, weaving cloth, grinding corn, making ice cream, and so on provide a depth of experience that supports many learnings. Having watched the mystery of yeast dough rising and all the steps until the climactic moment when warm and fragrant bread comes from the school cafeteria oven, who can ever again take for granted wrapped bread stacked on the supermarket shelves?

The cone of experience shown earlier in this chapter suggests other activities that involve children in direct experiences. Some of these, such as dramatic play and map-making, serve as ways of communicating information as well as ways of acquiring new information and, hence, are discussed in later chapters.

Experiences Involving Looking and Listening

Experiences involving looking and listening provide another type of learning resource. Demonstrations, study trips, films, filmstrips, and pictures (all chosen for appropriate content) are experiences often used. Careful planning is a necessary premise to selection of any of these media as learning resources. Most important of all, the purposes they are expected to fulfill must be clear to teacher and pupils so that they are alert to all possible learnings.

Study Trips

Study trips provide one of the best means of relating school experience to life in the community. They provide a reality base for thinking and are among the most rewarding of all experiences provided by the school for children. Too often the tired feet, the lost sweater, or the fright induced and felt by one missing child make the study trip so much a burden that a teacher may be tempted to forego it. But, by providing such trips the teacher also provides the "open sesame" that unlocks for children many doors of our daily life. Seeing workers mixing and



EXAMINING COMMUNICATION DEVICES. *Handling and examining a telephone is an effective aid to learning how it functions.*

baking bread, printing a newspaper, repairing airplane engines—these are experiences some boys and girls have had only because a teacher arranged them. Industries and services often welcome the study trips arranged by teachers, although casual visitors are discouraged. Thus, teachers should select for study trips those places that are not open to children except through a teacher's arrangements and those with the highest learning value. For purposes of social studies, a trip to see milk processed at a creamery is a wiser selection than a trip to a recreation park; an excursion to a factory in a nearby city is preferable to a tour of the city. The preparation for the study trip, and the use made of it afterward, largely determine its value as a learning experience.

A group of teachers in a workshop in Flagstaff, Arizona, analyzed their experiences in choosing, planning, and utilizing a

field trip to a local sawmill. The trip was chosen because it represented industry of the area; it was accessible; and few of the group had been inside the mill even though its smokestack dominated the landscape and the sound of its whistle was heard daily. Because it was an adult group, administrative arrangements such as parental permission, bus arrangements, and so on were not necessary. Preparation involved a discussion of the individual goals the trip would be expected to fulfill. Questions arose. What products come from this mill? How are they processed? What machinery is in use? What jobs do people do? Each member took the responsibility of obtaining all possible information in one of these areas. The trip itself produced still more information.

The next day a free discussion of various aspects of the trip included expressions of satisfaction, comparing of information, and some differences of interpretation. Since this was a class of teachers, it seemed important to analyze the discussion. It was apparent that much of the value of a study trip could be lost without effective classroom follow-ups. Four levels of post-discussion in the elementary classroom were derived from an analysis of the teachers' own experiences.

Level 1—Comparing Information. Questions may be raised to open up discussion: "What interested you the most?" "Did you find out what you wanted to know?" The ensuing observations give the teacher some idea of the information and understandings reached by the pupils. Enough time should be allotted to the discussion to include comment from each person and to compare differences of interpretation. Usually, these discussions lead to the next level.

Level 2—Planning Ways to Organize and Use New Information. The visual method of explanation often serves as a good index of what the children have absorbed. Those who had been interested in how lumber was processed felt they could clarify the various steps by developing a series of pictures. These could show in sequence what happens to a log after it is taken from the mill pond—the various processes it goes through before it becomes a finished piece of lumber—the deck saw, the head rig, resawing, and so on. Or, a series of separate charts might also

be used; for example, one might show Lumber Products, another Lumber By-Products.

In levels 1 and 2, the focus is primarily on the amount of new information gained and ways in which it can be organized. But, this is not enough. The field trip must also provide leads to further research and discovery.

Level 3—Finding Ways to Extend Information. A field trip is usually not sufficient in itself as a provider of information. In discussions, misconceptions and gaps in understanding become apparent. For example, after the lumber mill trip, a question was raised as to why this mill did not process sawdust into compressed logs. Several members had heard the guide say that Ponderosa pine could not be processed in this way. Questions came up that could not be answered by the trip alone. What other trees are used for lumber? What are the distinctive features of each that dictate its use? At another point, it was observed that the visited mill was a large one—one of the major sources of lumber. This, too, raised questions. Where are other mills in Arizona located? Do they process the same kinds of trees? How does Arizona rate as a lumber-producing state in comparison with others? The need for other sources of information became obvious. Here again the information could be presented in some tangible form—graphs showing comparative lumber production by states, maps showing lumber producing areas, and so on. Thus, information could be extended far beyond that gained on the trip itself.

Level 4—Expressing Feelings. The study trip presents many sensory impressions—sights, sounds, smells, motion. By focusing on the sights, sounds, smells, and feelings or emotions resulting from them, the result will almost surely have in it the essence of creative expression. After their field trip, the teachers were asked to think of the sounds they had heard and to express their reactions to them. They produced something definitely akin to creative writing. One after another, as rapidly as they could be recorded, the following four lines appeared. The fifth was added because it seemed to provide a finishing touch.

The screaming and screeching of saws,
The pop, pop, pop of the exhaust,

The moan of the crane, like a man from outer space,
The rhythmic tune of the stacker—
These are the sounds of the sawmill.

A study trip, these teachers concluded, will pay returns in the classroom if all the levels suggested are used fully.

Selecting study trips

Study trips, like all learning resources, are most effective when children recognize their own need for information. Selecting and planning for a specific study trip, then, requires careful planning by the teacher as well as by the teacher and children together. Before deciding on a study trip as the learning resource to be used, the teacher may want to ask such practical questions as: "Will it be worth the time, effort and expense involved?" "Will it result in improved community relations with children understanding facets of community life and the community itself understanding its contribution?" If these are answered in the affirmative, certain administrative arrangements should be made by the teacher. He should—

1. Make a preliminary study of the field trip before taking the class. Look for possible meeting places where the class may congregate, parking places (if parent's cars are to be used), available restrooms.

2. Get approval of plans for the trip from his school administrator. Secure parent's consent if this is required. Make sure parents and principals know when he plans to leave and when he plans to return.

3. Make arrangements for transportation in accordance with school policy—school bus, chartered bus, public transportation, parent's cars. (Some schools do not permit trips if children must pay for transportation or if an admission fee is required.)

4. Plan for at least one other adult—"room mothers" or interested parents—to go with the group.

Planning with children

If the trip has been planned as a result of children's needs for information, it will be a simple matter to review with chil-

dren what they want to find out on the trip. Listing questions or topics on the chalkboard or on a chart provides focus. Children may want to assume special responsibility for questions that particularly interest them and take with them materials for on-the-spot note-taking. However, the teacher must guard against the limiting effect of questions; if a child feels driven to get an answer, he may miss other points of interest or value.

Pupil-teacher planning should include standards of behavior and safety. These should be agreed upon in advance.

All study trips need not be full scale productions requiring the whole day and the use of the school bus. Study trips to nearby places or within the school itself have the great advantage of simplicity of arrangement, and opportunities for such trips should be fully utilized. The school is a worthy study, especially for the first grader entering this strange new world for the first time. One teacher made use of the following places within the school for study trips:

The cafeteria for first-day first graders, when children practiced carrying a tray.

The front of the school to see the traffic squad in action.

The kitchen of the cafeteria to see the activity there.

The boys' and girls' laboratories (at a pre-arranged time) to remove any mystery about them.

The principal's office.

The office of the school nurse to introduce her as a person before she is called on to perform officially.

Rooms of brothers or sisters.

There are also many places close to the school to which trips may be made:

The neighborhood postal storage box to see how the postman uses it. Different kinds of mail boxes can be included as well as a study of the house numbering system.

Nearby services—fire station, neighborhood bakery, grocery, shoe repair shop, and so on.

Construction in the neighborhood—road building, house building, and so on.

Although the study trip as a source and extender of information is important, it has other values too. Many teachers plan a

field trip as a unifying experience for a class. Children who have had a vivid experience together have a common denominator for discussion and planning that builds class we-ness. For some children, the study trip provides an opportunity to become accustomed to acceptable behavior in public. In addition, there is almost always an unexpected dividend.

One teacher in a small town described some unexpected dividends. Her second grade class was studying their town—its services, facilities, and so on. It happened that the town had just completed a new (and quite small) jail and was planning an open-house for the community before putting it to its intended use. The second graders thought it would be a good idea for the class to visit on that day. The teacher, dismayed, tried to discourage the idea. Weren't they too busy to go? Weren't there other places they wanted to see first? Finally, succumbing to their enthusiasm, she discussed with them what they would want to find out on such a visit. The first, and most persistent item, on their *we-want-to-see* list was the electric chair. She felt it necessary to tell the children bluntly that there was no electric chair in the town jail and went on to a more realistic listing of items to be looked for. Nonetheless, one of the first questions put to the jail custodian, their guide on the trip, was "Where is the electric chair?" His assurance that there was none relieved somewhat the tendency of some children to regard each large chair suspiciously. In thinking of her own reluctance to take this particular trip, this teacher felt that she had really learned how necessary it is for children to find out for themselves—telling alone is not enough. The best dividend, in the teacher's opinion, came to her attention on the walk back to school. A small boy left his place in the entourage to walk beside the teacher, and after a while, these comments came:

"I'm glad we took this trip."

(Teacher) "Are you?"

"The jail is a nice clean place."

(Teacher) "Did you think so?"

"I'm going home and tell my mommy about it. Every Saturday night my daddy gets in jail, and my mommy cries and cries. I'm going to tell her it isn't a bad place."

A field trip, as this teacher found out, can sometimes build a bridge of understanding between the remote world of the school and the world of reality in which each child lives.

Films

Films are another useful learning resource. Like the study trip, they provide a common background for discussion and planning, and for clarifying and extending meaning. Films make it possible to explore far-away places, long-ago times, and to share vicariously in many experiences with a degree of reality that enhances learning. The combined use of sight and sound bring a "you are there" quality to film showings, frequently resulting in a high emotional appeal that helps shape attitudes.

The wide experience children have with films as entertainment media on TV and in commercial "movies" places a responsibility on teachers to give careful consideration to their use as instructional media. Out-of-school film viewing is usually casual in nature and for purposes of entertainment, although this does not preclude them as a learning source. When films are used in schools as instructional materials, care in selection and in planning is required.

Selecting films

The purpose the teacher has in mind will determine film selection. Some films are used to stimulate interest and to raise questions. Some may be used to develop positive feelings about an area to be studied. More often, films are used to discover answers to questions previously raised, to gain information, and to clarify understandings. As with any other learning resource, films provide many learnings related to feelings and attitudes, and films for social studies are often chosen for their contribution in this area.

The value of films as instructional media in the classroom is dependent largely on wise selection. Keeping informed about film materials is an important teacher task if films are to be used to enhance social studies learnings. The teacher will want to study the audio-visual guide for films available through city, county, or district administrative offices. He will find out about

the procedures for previewing films, for ordering films owned locally, and policies for use, purchase, and rental of other available films. An examination of units of work developed by others gives clues to films recommended.

Film guides such as those listed below are an indispensable aid to film selection. The kind of film to be shown, as well as its content, will dictate procedures for its use. Several kinds of films are especially useful in social studies.

FILMS WITH STORY CONTENT. Films with story content stimulate interest, give rise to feelings about the subject matter, and lead to questions. Hence, they are frequently used in the early stages of the unit of work. Repeated viewings of all or part of the film are helpful since following the story often keeps children from noting significant details at a first viewing.

FACTUAL FILMS. Films dealing with factual content are useful after questions have been raised and are selected to answer specific questions. Factual films carry only enough story line to give continuity and put emphasis on factual reporting. Documentary films, travel films, biographical films, and films that reproduce significant events are commonly used factual films.

INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS. Films designed to instruct in procedures such as making maps or murals or holding a discussion are available. Such films require follow-through in practice and use. Teaching films related to safety, to conservation, and similar topics also emphasize instruction.

PROBLEM-SITUATION FILMS. All films provide opportunity for discussion as students compare observations, raise questions, and clarify points of agreement and disagreement. In fact, the discussion is an important outcome of most film viewing. However, some films are designed particularly to lead to discussion of problems, issues, and attitudes. Such films develop problem situations that are left unresolved at the conclusion of the film for solutions by the viewer. For example, the film "Being Different"¹ depicts the problem of a boy whose friends are not willing

¹ "Being Different," from a series *What Do You Think* produced by the National Film Board of Canada. Distributed by McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, Toronto, London.

to accept his new acquaintance and interests. The film ends at the point of crisis with the decision left to the viewers. The impact of this film comes, of course, from the ensuing discussion. The value of such films in social studies depends on their relevance to problems pupils themselves have recognized.

FREE FILMS. Many free and inexpensive films are available to teachers for instructional use. Schools vary in their policies concerning the use of films sponsored by commercial organizations. Some schools contend that since they are produced to advertise or propagandize they should not be used at all. Others require teachers to have prior permission from school authorities before showing a sponsored film. Teachers should know what the local policy is. "Free" films can be used for examination of propaganda techniques and for comparison of biased viewpoints with more objective ones reflected in other films or learning resources. Used for these purposes, such films are an important learning device.

Planning for classroom use

Along with selecting and ordering specific films for classroom use, the teacher must make arrangements for showing films within the classroom. Facilities for darkening the room, projector and screen ready for use, and seating arrangements that provide for comfortable viewing must be checked in advance. For instructional purposes, viewing within the classroom is highly desirable. If the school is equipped for viewing in only one room (the auditorium, for example), extra care must be taken to minimize the "holiday" aspect of moving to the less familiar location.

Previewing films is an essential step in selecting those suitable for instruction, in determining which points need emphasis or clarification, and in selecting pertinent parts of a film to be shown for a specific purpose. Some films need not be seen in entirety. Following a preview and preliminary planning, the teacher is ready to plan with children.

PLANNING WITH CHILDREN BEFORE VIEWING. The teacher's preview enables him to guide children toward things to look for in the film. No film is ever shown "cold." Whether the film is

used to stimulate interest or to provide information for questions previously raised, some time should be spent in discussion prior to viewing. Even when the film is used to arouse interest in an unfamiliar topic, *children need some focus for viewing*. As simple a procedure as *best guessing* what a film with a given title is about may be used, with viewing serving as a check. Or, after a brief statement about the film, children may be challenged to look for two or three "It's news to me" ideas and two or three "I thought so" ideas. Films serve their best purpose in social studies, however, when they are used to supply information for questions previously raised by the class. Thus, some fourth graders, in the process of painting San Gabriel Mission in their mural, were challenged to find out how the missions of California and the Southwest were built—the materials and processes used. When the teacher brought in the film *Mission Days* he introduced it by saying, "You remember that yesterday we weren't sure what the mission in our mural was really made of and how it was put together. We have a film that I think will help." He then helped children review their conjectures: missions were made by plastering mud over boards, by pouring mud as concrete would be poured, and so on. The film selected had an excellent section on the making of adobe brick and tile, but the whole film was viewed because all of it had relevance to the unit in progress.

In this case, selecting out the relevant parts provided a focus for viewing the total film. In other cases, each major portion of the film might be discussed and specific questions raised, with interested class members accepting "viewing responsibility" for different problems. Discussion before viewing serves to focus children's interest by relating the film to their questions and concerns. Teacher presentation is not enough; children must be able to raise questions and test their opinions. The teacher may want to call attention to special points or unfamiliar vocabulary. Frequently, questions raised are listed on the chalkboard or on a chart with responsibility assigned for each. However, children should not feel so burdened with things to look for that viewing becomes an "answer hunt."

VIEWING. Routine lighting, seating, placement of equipment are all planned to facilitate viewing in a relaxed yet purposeful

atmosphere within the classroom. Preliminary discussion gives focus. The actual viewing of the film is just that, with full ear and eye attention given to the film. Teacher questions and comments, children's comments, discussion during the film, note-taking—all are distractions and should be omitted. Captions in films are read silently or, if reading presents difficulty, by the teacher. Discussion following the film may indicate a need for a second showing or for repeating a specific part. The second showing provides opportunity to see details missed in the first showing, especially when discussion has pointed out discrepancies in interpretation.

DISCUSSION FOLLOWING VIEWING. As with other learning resources, films are useful to the degree that children see their relevance to their own concerns and that they deepen and extend meanings. Some sharing of perceptions, usually through discussion, helps teacher and students assess and clarify ideas presented on the film. Post-film discussion serves the same purpose as the post-field trip discussion described earlier.

Anyone who has seen a favorite "movie" more than once is aware in subsequent viewing of details and nuances missed in the first. Ideas presented by film are so fleeting that time spent in discussing what was seen is important. Too, children bring such different backgrounds to the film that discussion is most helpful in comparing derived meanings. Disagreements may result as much from an individual's perception as from how accurately he "saw" the film.

Discussion focused on testing meaning is especially important in view of the children's exposure to films for entertainment and advertising purposes in out-of-school life. Thoughtful discussion of films used in school (and discussion of things seen on home TV or in the "movies") help children become more discriminating viewers. For example, a fourth grader challenged his teacher's statement that Father Serra lived a long time ago by saying, "But I saw him on TV Sunday night!" This raised the problem, which was promptly discussed, of how one could tell whether or not a film was a story, or a real happening, and presented clues for discrimination.

WAYS TO ORGANIZE AND USE NEW INFORMATION. Films as instructional materials are most useful when they present ideas

and information that children know they need. Part of the purpose of discussion preceding viewing is to re-affirm for children their purposes in seeing the film, and the contributions it may make.

Discussion following the film includes plans for using pertinent information. For example, after seeing the film, "Mission Days" the mural committee felt they needed more detail in painting the mission in their mural. Seeing the film led to a course of action, planned on the basis of new information derived from the film. Films used in social studies usually clarify and further plans already under way, contributing to the ongoing progress of the unit.

EXPRESSED FEELINGS. Films, especially story films, carry emotional impact. Discussion after seeing a film focuses on personal reactions to it and is in that sense creative expression that can lead to expressing feelings and ideas in writing, art, or other forms. Sometimes, but not always, discussion following a film should focus on why the film aroused certain emotions. Only the teacher's sensitivity to his group can determine whether helping children discover techniques used to create moods and feelings is appropriate. However, assessing the emotional appeal in films is essential at some point, if for no other reason than that of helping children assess propaganda media with which they are bombarded in out-of-school viewing.

Film Strips

Many teachers find film strips adaptable learning resources. They are simple to use, can be paced to allow discussions and questions of individual frames, and can be used by small groups while the rest of the class use other resources. The film strip projector may have a permanent place in the classroom where individuals and small groups can use it as needed. Procedures for their use are similar to those for films. In some classrooms, small student committees assume responsibility for previewing film strips and deciding on their value in terms of information needed. They then brief the class on special items or sections of value.

Guides to the selection of films and filmstrips are listed below:

FILM GUIDES

Educational Film Guide
H. W. Wilson Co.
950 University Avenue
New York 52, New York

Educator's Guide to Free Films
Educator's Progress Service
Randolph, Wisconsin

Film lists published by:
Department of Audio-Visual In-
struction
National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C.

FILMSTRIPS

Complete Index of Educational
Filmstrips
Filmstrip Distributors
Madison, Wisconsin

Educator's Guide to Free Slide-
films
Educator's Progress Service
Randolph, Wisconsin

Filmstrip Guide
H. W. Wilson Co.
950 University Avenue
New York 52, New York

Pictures

One of the major improvements in children's books of the last half century has been the inclusion of picture material. In social studies textbooks, pictures have been selected to further understandings. Current materials for adult use commonly present information in pictorial form. Pictures provide another useful resource for learning and, at the same time present opportunity to develop skill in reading pictures. As with any other source of information, it is important that children learn to add to their information for themselves.

Pictures require thoughtful, critical attention. For example, a third grade, finding out about Navajo life, was shown, in the early stages of the study, a picture of a Navajo woman weaving a rug on a handloom. Under the guidance of the teacher, these third graders not only gained specific information but acquired experience in critical thinking. The teacher guided the discussion through questions that seemed to follow the following sequence:

What do you see in the picture? (Naming items in the picture.) Simple name responses were required—a woman, a

rug, a house, hills far away. Also involved was specific vocabulary: someone called the frame a loom, and the word hogan was used in referring to the house. Questions were raised and comments were made about the woman's dress, her surroundings, her weaving.

What tools is she using? (Observing details.) A first glance showed the loom and the obvious weaving process. A more careful examination showed individual items: shuttles, a carding comb, a spindle. Many hypotheses were advanced as to their use.

What do you think she will do with the rug when she finishes it? (Making deductions.) This question involved an important step in thinking—making assumptions from obvious facts. From the informal give and take of discussion emerged many hypotheses: she would use it in her hogan; she would sell it; it would be a saddle blanket; she would hang it on the wall; she would use it as a shawl. No one (not even the teacher!) had "the right answer." In the interests of developing critical thinking powers, an important part of using facts is the consideration of many different interpretations based on the same given facts.

Do you suppose she makes all rugs alike? (Using imagination.) After some discussion, some children decided they would like to show the colors and designs they would use in a rug.

This easy, open discussion took no more than five or six minutes. Its value lay in the help it gave children in dealing with the factual content in the picture and with ways of relating and using facts.

Flat pictures for classroom use come from many sources, including personal collections maintained by teachers. Commercial sources of pictures prepared for instructional purposes and catalogs listing free sources are listed below:

FLAT PICTURES FOR INSTRUCTIONAL PURPOSES

Marguerite Brown Study Prints
Compton, California

Hi Worth Pictures
1499 E. Walnut Street
Pasadena 4, California

Informative Classroom Pictures Association
Grand Rapids 2, Michigan

National Geographic Society
16th and M St., N.W.
Washington, D.C.

Realistic Visual Aids
Highland, California

SOURCES OF FREE AND INEXPENSIVE PICTURES FOR CLASSROOM USE

Bruce Miller
Box 369
Riverside, California

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials
George Peabody School for Teachers
Nashville 5, Tennessee

Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials
Educator's Progress Service
Randolph, Wisconsin

Resource People

Many people in the community can contribute to social studies. The class takes advantage of their contributions through personal interviews by a few children or by inviting speakers to the classroom. A satisfactory visit, for visitor and children alike, results from definite planning—knowing exactly what resources the person has to offer, how clearly children have defined specific questions he is expected to answer, and how effectively the teacher (or, in some cases, a committee of children) has defined expectations. Frequently, the teacher must help resource visitors by suggesting appropriate procedures for a particular age group. The paraphernalia used by the policeman were of interest to a second grade class, as well as uniform details. A visit to an upper grade level by a policeman focused on information about community problems of law enforcement, relationship with state and federal enforcement agencies, or vocational preparation for law enforcement officers. In both visits, the expectations of the class were made clear, the concerns that prompted the request (including specific questions to be dealt with), the procedures to be used (a talk on specified topics, questions from the group). The time limit should be defined. Many visitors get

warmed up at about the point where children are ready for a change in pace. If a clear time limit has been set, there is no embarrassment in reminding the visitor of it.

Summary

Children learn in many ways. They need help in utilizing the many learning resources available to them now and in the future. Schools have tended to rely heavily on reading, but other learning resources must be utilized, including those involving participation, looking, and listening. The more direct experiences such as making things or models, seeing demonstrations, observing processes on appropriate study trips often provide a sound base for further exploration and readings. Films and pictures also provide excellent resources. Children learn from many out-of-school sources including radio and TV. School experiences with a wide range of learning resources add vitality to learning; they also help children close the gap between school and out-of-school experiences.

For Further Study

An important teacher task is that of having available a variety of learning resources when children need them. Locating usable resources for learning is an important part of unit pre-planning. Using the unit you are developing, select and evaluate appropriate doing-looking-listening kinds of experiences. Using suggestions from this chapter or other reading, show some of the teaching procedures you would use with each.

1. *Using a variety of learning resources.*

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Chapter 2. *Case studies of active learning through wide use of learning resources.*

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Revised 1959. Chapters 1 through 4. The rationale for a variety of learning resources for effective learning; the "cone of experience" concept.

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapter 6. Review of all available learning resources.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 7. Emphasis on selection of materials for specific purposes of social studies.

2. *Direct experiences.*

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (Revised Edition). New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1954. Chapter 8. The importance of direct experience for learning.

3. *Community resources: field trips and visitors.*

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Chapter 17. Suggestions for building a file of possible field trips and resource people in a community and specific suggestions for their use with children.

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*. Chapter 12. Value of field trips and effective procedures in preparing for and using them.

Wesley, Edgar B. and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., revised 1952. Chapter 22. Suggestion for getting acquainted with a community, with listing of resources and sources for community study and possible field trips.

4. *Realia and models.*

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. Chapter 18. Advantages and disadvantages of real things in the classroom. Good suggestions for collecting things, developing school museums.

5. *Films, filmstrips, pictures.*

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. Chapters 7 and 8 deal with films and filmstrips. Chapter 19 deals with choosing and using still pictures. Classified directory (Section IV) lists sources of all types of audio-visual materials.

7

Learning Through Reading

Living in today's world requires high-level reading abilities as we read for utility purposes, for personal growth, to gain new insights, and to further our understanding of the world and its problems. The increased use of direct experience and pictorial materials has not minimized the importance of reading in schools today. Rather, the use of other kinds of learning experiences give added meaning and purpose to reading. Even in its beginning stages, reading and the purposes for which one reads cannot be separated, for the real business of reading is concerned always with meaning. Social studies provides a setting in which extensive, purposeful reading is utilized to satisfy individual and group concerns.

Social Studies Extends Reading Abilities

Reading and social studies play reciprocal roles. On the one hand, social studies tries to provide the experiences out of which meanings grow. The primary teacher knows that half the battle is won when meanings of words are clear before the visual presentation of the words themselves. Children who have had opportunity to explore and talk about the school cafeteria, with its steam table, its trays, its ovens, its cook and other helpers, have little difficulty reading stories they have written about it. Reading, for them, is a forceful process of recalling—through the use of symbols—meanings already known and expressed.

On the other hand, reading is called upon to add to and

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Reading and social studies play reciprocal roles. On the one hand, social studies tries to provide the experiences out of which meanings grow. The primary teacher knows that half the battle is won when meanings of words are clear before the visual presentation of the words themselves. Children who have had opportunity to explore and talk about the school cafeteria, with its steam table, its trays, its ovens, its cook and other helpers, have little difficulty reading stories they have written about it. Reading, for them, is a forceful process of recalling—through the use of symbols—meanings already known and expressed.

On the other hand, reading is called upon to add to and

reshape meanings already acquired. Children have the start toward effective reading when they discover that reading unlocks doors to needed information. Many teachers have witnessed heartening miracles as children make this discovery. "This book is all about fire trucks," says the first grader. "Only two of these books tell me anything about what goods the pioneers carried as they traveled west," says a fifth grader, "but I can make a pretty good list from these about how much food was carried." In each case, reading is an active process: the information about fire trucks will be used as construction for dramatic play, or a mural, or settings for a puppet show; the information about goods carried in the covered wagon will result in more accurate conversation in the play being written, or in charts developed to show what each covered wagon might have carried.

Developing Reading Skills

Although it does not constitute the whole of a developmental reading program, social studies provides many opportunities to use and extend reading skills.

Social studies relies heavily on factual material. Skills required in using this type of material can be dealt with effectively as children sense needs for information and are concerned with procedures for finding, evaluating and using it. The teacher is concerned with helping children use reading as a tool and, at the same time, with developing essential skills in its use.

Locating Information

This particular skill requires special emphasis. The vast amount of information on almost any subject demands facility in locating specific facts needed. In consequence, teachers spend a good deal of time building interests to raise children's questions so that reading may become a means of satisfying them. Learning to locate information begins with a need to find out, even though specific mechanical skills are necessary in the process. Locating information proceeds in an ascending scale of complexity. In the primary grades, the pictures in the book or its title give clues. Since the big job is to establish that some books will and some will not provide needed information, teachers frequently help

beginning readers by marking books that are useful. For example, in a beginning first grade involved in finding out about the dairy farm, the teacher said, "You told me yesterday that you needed pictures of the buildings on the dairy farm and pictures of different kinds of cows. The books with blue slips of paper have building pictures; the books with red slips of paper have good cow pictures. Now you will know which books to choose."

Later, children should become aware of such organizational clues as the chapter titles, subheads, table of contents, and index, and it is the teacher's task to see that they attain skill in using different kinds of organizational and locational clues. A variety of reading resources provides opportunity for comparing the kinds of clues that different materials provide. Most children will need careful guidance toward the best use of locational clues in each book. For example:

TABLE OF CONTENTS

- How is table of contents arranged?
- How many chapters?
- Which titles indicate the chapter might contain desired information?
- Are there chapter subheadings, as well as chapter titles?

INDEX

- How is the index arranged?
- What provision is made for cross-reference?
- Does it use linked page numbers, bold-face numbers, italics to indicate major discussion of a topic?
- How are maps and pictures indicated?

BODY OF THE TEXT

- What reading clues are in the text itself?
- Are there headings, subheadings, paragraph headings within the chapter?
- What types of subheadings are used? Are subheadings indicated by titles, questions, or first words in bold-face type?

ILLUSTRATIONS AND OTHER HELPS

- Do pictures, charts, maps offer clues to understanding?
- Are there other aids to understanding such as a pronunciation guide, a glossary, an appendix?

Because social studies provides a setting in which these skills are needed, meaningful instruction can be provided. The skill is then maintained through continual use.

As children continue to use reading resources, higher level skills in locating materials are developed. Use of a simple card catalog is often a good beginning step. For example, a fourth grade, beginning a study of transportation, spent one day examining books brought into their classroom by the teacher. Each fourth grader examined one or more books. After examining the books, each child made an index card, listing author and title. Then, comments, based on the following questions, were written on the card, followed by the name of the reviewer:

1. What types of transportation does this book tell about?
2. Are there pictures or other interesting features in this book?
3. Is it easy to read?

When these were filed (alphabetically by author), the fourth grade had a reference file for their own use that emphasized again the idea that different books present different information. More than that, they had a beginning understanding of the more complex card file they would use in later grades.

Reading and critical thinking

After locating a possible source of needed information, children should be encouraged to assess critically the material discovered. Does it answer my question? Does it "square" with what I think I already know?—with general background for other reading materials?—with other source materials? Use of a wide variety of resources encourages children to compare data. Teachers must be alert to help children recognize discrepancies and reconcile them by seeking additional or more authoritative data. For example: In the sketching in of Fort Laramie for a mural showing life on the trail west, children became involved in an argument. One child had produced a picture of Fort Boonesboro as a sketch guide. Doubt was expressed by another child who thought he had read somewhere about the barren surroundings of Fort Laramie. At this point, the teacher avoided making a decision for the children and discouraged compromise. Instead, he encouraged the committee to read all they could about Fort Laramie before continuing with the mural. Later, Fort Laramie in

this mural was pointed out to visitors as "one of the few forts made of stone and not of wood." The children were aware of the accuracy of data and took pride in it.

From primary grades on, children should be aware that data from different sources vary as to accuracy. Information from entertainment and casual sources (stories, TV, movies, what someone said) frequently has to be checked against other sources. Data from texts or other reading sources may require checking against more authoritative sources such as encyclopedias, almanacs, dictionaries. Information presented in advertisements, propaganda, and publications with specific bias should be examined in the light of their purposes. For example: a sixth grade, studying the Pacific area, viewed a film on Hawaii that had been developed by a company representing one of the area's products. Although it was an interesting film, it emphasized only one industry. The class was provided with some specific information from the film but, more important, gained practice in critical thinking as they analyzed the purposes for which the film was produced and discovered through reading from many sources the important aspects of life in Hawaii omitted by the film.

Recognizing purposes for reading

Social studies provides many opportunities for meeting different kinds of reading needs. At times skimming is essential. At other times precise reading is required, as in reading to follow directions, to find specific answers, or to gather detailed information. Sometimes the purpose may be to gain a general background or to outline main ideas about a topic of interest. In part, the reading material will determine the purpose. However, development of the unit of work should also call for a wider range of reading purposes. For example, a sixth grade class became interested in life in Alaska as a result of many newspaper and TV reports. They recognized that in spite of their interest, they knew too little to select significant areas for study. They, therefore, began their study by skimming several books and articles at hand and by reading along lines of general interest. After a time they shared ideas, and selected topics of interest. These in turn led to highly specialized reading as some children sought information about present-day life in Alaska, others became in-



USING BOOKS. *Reading for a purpose and sharing results are important parts of social studies.*

terested in such specific problems as its role in air travel and defense, or in specific industries such as fishing, lumber, and so on. As they progressed through their study, reading at many levels of intensity resulted. Children need experience in reading for many purposes and in adapting reading procedures to the purpose to be served.

Interpreting content

Children who approach reading with their own questions to be answered are already bringing much meaning to their task. For this reason problem-solving contributes to understanding and interpreting social studies content. At the same time, reading materials for social studies are frequently criticized for the

difficulties they present, both in vocabulary and in concepts. Frequently the criticisms stem from the fact that what is read is outside the range of experience of the reader. Children need help in finding ways to clarify and extend social studies vocabulary and concepts, and this is best accomplished by surrounding them with the experiences out of which vocabulary and concepts grow. Out-of-school experiences may also be utilized as bridges to understanding. Relating what is read to the familiar in everyday life helps interpret content. For example, the fifth graders who plotted the approximate size of the *Mayflower* on their school grounds and plotted beside it the approximate size of the *Lurline*, which they had seen at the pier, had a clearer concept of what that early voyage involved. Not every new word or concept can be introduced through direct experience, but children need time to sort out meanings and to express these in a variety of ways. Teacher questioning and class discussion can aid interpretation as all pool past experience to clarify meanings. For example, children reading about the discovery of gold pooled their definitions of the word nugget. Even had they held in their hands samples of nuggets the process of verbalizing meaning would still have been necessary as the meaning of that word was extended. Several contributed ideas such as:

"It's a kind of lump. Not all nuggets were the same size."

"It's like a pebble only it's gold."

"Big nuggets were about the size of little marbles only bumpy. Most nuggets were much smaller than marbles."

"Miners found the nuggets mixed in with sand and gravel. They could use the nuggets for money."

The process of making connections between new words and ideas and one's own experience, as well as the process of visualizing what one reads, are important parts of social studies reading.

Time to reflect, to consider application of what is read and to draw conclusions, is also an important part of social studies reading. In reading about Pedro's day in his Mexican village children discover many things about his ways of living. They will be able to tell about his home, his food, his daily tasks, the village fiesta. But good reading implies much more than mere recall of information gathered. A question such as "What would you like best if you were Pedro for a day?" helps the teacher as-

sess information gained, and at the same time helps children make connections between their own lives and what is read. Discussions that "open up" information, that lead children to relate reading to their own lives, to assess the meaning of what is read as a basis for conclusions reached or courses of action to be taken, are an essential part of social studies reading.

Providing Varied Reading Materials

The breadth of social studies as a field of study demands a wide variety of reading materials. More important, the habits and attitudes for effective reading seem to require the use of varied materials. The effective adult reader, according to one writer, is self-motivated toward reading. That is, he selects reading to fulfill compelling purposes of his own. His interests serve not only as a motivating force, but as an aid in interpreting what he reads. In addition, the effective adult reader is aware of his social responsibility for being informed.¹ Social studies with its emphasis on broad exploration of problems can aid in the development of effective readers when adequate reading materials, varied in kind, in level of reading difficulty, in interest appeal, are available and used. Textbooks, reference books, fiction, biography, current materials—all have a place.

Using Social Studies Textbooks

Most elementary classrooms have social studies textbooks designated for common use by curriculum committees at local or state level to fulfill the goals of social studies planned for the district or state. Adequate texts and other reading materials are important; it is especially helpful when several texts using different presentations, at varying levels of reading and concept difficulty, are adopted for use. Many publishing companies publish social studies textbooks, usually in a series of books providing continuity of approach from grade to grade. It is important to examine the whole series to gain an overview of the scope and sequence of the complete series. Some series present a geographic approach, some deal primarily with history, while others

¹ William S. Gray, "Promoting Desirable Reading Habits," *Education* (79) May, 1959, pp. 551-556.

present a combination of these and other social science materials. A bibliography of social studies textbooks published by the National Council for Social Studies (Alice W. Spiesecke. *Bibliography of Textbooks for the Social Studies*. Bulletin 23, September, 1949) with supplement published each year is helpful.

No one text can accommodate the varying reading abilities and interest within any elementary classroom. Since textbooks are readily available tools, beneficial ways of using them must be considered.

Providing common information

Some teachers find that social studies texts provide a beginning point for developing a common viewpoint on a given topic. It is not until children know a little bit about Brazil that they can have any curiosity about people and life there. Points that interest them, discrepancies in their information develop as text material is read and freely discussed. In the process of finding out, many other sources of information will be used.

Providing a basis for comparison

Texts, in providing some common background information, also provide a basis for comparison. Comparison with information gained from children's out-of-school experiences is especially important. Television brings much to children. School can help sort out some of the meanings derived from it. Text information must also be compared with that from other reading sources and with current events.

Providing practice in skills

Textbooks usually provide tables, maps, illustrations, an index, and table of contents, and give children experience in their use. Specific skills such as using the index, using clues to meaning such as paragraph headings, and many others can be derived from the common instructional material.

Social studies texts for the middle and upper elementary

grades often contain information in table, chart, or graph form. There is a trend toward use of these graphic presentations in current adult materials, too. Children need instruction in interpreting such data and continued practice through meaningful use. One of the best means of functional interpretation comes from children's construction of their own tables, charts, and graphs. This is discussed in Chapter 10.

Using Reference Materials

As mentioned earlier, respect for accurate data should be fostered and factual compilations kept readily available. In the middle and upper grades reference materials such as those listed provide access to factual material along with practice in their use.

ABSTRACTS AND ALMANACS

- Statistical Abstract of the United States
Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Census
- Information Please Almanac
New York: The Macmillan Company
- Statesman's Yearbook
New York: St. Martin's Press
- World Almanac
New York: New York World-Telegram
- South American Handbook
New York: Wilson Publishing Co.

ATLASES

- Classroom Atlas
Chicago: Rand McNally, 1950
- Denoyer's School Atlas
Chicago: DeNoyer Geppert Co., 1947
- Goode's School Atlas
Chicago: DeNoyer Geppert Co., 1947
- Hammond's Standard World Atlas
New York: C. S. Hammond and Co., Inc., 1953
- The Global Atlas, a New View of the World from Space
New York: Simon Schuster, 1958
- Goode's World Atlas (abridged edition, paper bound)
Chicago: DeNoyer Geppert Co., 1953

Bartholomew's Advanced Atlas of Modern Geography
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1956 (text edition)
World Atlas
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Britannica Junior
Encyclopaedia Britannica
Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia
World Book Encyclopedia
Chicago: Field Enterprises

Using Children's Literature

Skills developed in reading are aimed toward helping children use reading to extend and clarify their insights and understandings. Reaction to what is read is always a part of the reading process. In addition to factual material, biography and fiction have a place in the social studies program in developing skill in visualizing and in relating what is read to one's own experience. Fiction and biography have especially important roles here as they help children focus on problems of human relationships or provide an emotional setting for understanding.

*Reading to understand people in other times and
places*

Children's literature provides rich resources for social studies. Fiction related to the unit develops a background of information and, more important, surrounds it with an emotional context that deepens insight concerning the people, places, and events described and concerning human behavior in all times and places. Stories frequently differ in viewpoints and information and so provide an opportunity to discuss these differences and to reach individual decisions as to which viewpoint is acceptable. Thus, discussion of differences noted may require further information; it may result in recognition that value differences cannot be easily reconciled. Using fiction as a resource for social studies encourages children to use the available library resources both in the school and in the community. Guides such as those listed aid in selection of books of appropriate content

and reading level. Librarians can offer guidance to children (and teachers too) in locating materials appropriate to children's interests and abilities.

AIDS TO BOOK SELECTION

- Association of Childhood Education International
- A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades* (Seventh Edition). Chicago: American Library Association, 1959.
- A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools* (Third Edition). Chicago: American Library Association, 1960.
- The Children's Catalog* (Ninth Edition). New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1956. (With annual supplements.)
- A Reading List for Elementary School*, Champaign, Ill.: National Council for Teachers of English.
- Eakins, Mary K. (Ed.) *Good Books for Children: A Selection of Outstanding Children's Books*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948-1959.
- Rue, Eloise. *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades* (Second Edition). Chicago: American Library Association, 1950.
- Spache, George. *Good Reading for Poor Readers*. Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Press, 1958.

Stories focused on human relations

Sensitivity toward people, their values and their ways of living can be an important contribution of literature. Stories dealing with patterns of family life, with the effects of economic differences, of experiences of acceptance and rejection and many others provide ways to relate vicarious experience with life experiences.² Books that provide opportunity for consideration of human relations problems are also an important segment of social studies reading. The pamphlets produced by the Committee on Intergroup Education of the American Council on Education are helpful guides to literature and its use for this purpose. For instance, *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* is an excellent source.³

² *Literature for Human Understanding*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1948.

³ *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955.

Using current events

The world around them is a rich source of learning for children. In the early years in school, ego-related news dominates as children share their immediate interests and concerns. All through elementary school use of current happenings can bring the children's school and outside interests into closer relationship, utilizing children's out-of-school activities including TV viewing, listening to the radio, and reading newspapers.

News sources

News stemming from family, neighborhood, and school happenings continues to occupy children's attention throughout elementary school. Teachers will want to help broaden children's horizons as they progress through school to include interest in community, national, and world-wide affairs. It is good to have several news sources available, not only to accommodate varying abilities to deal with more complex materials but, more important, to give children early and continuing experience in assessing information from different sources. The transition to adult materials can begin early for some children if adult materials are at hand. Subscriptions to two or three different newspapers or copies donated from homes are helpful. Adult news magazines such as *Time*, *Life*, *U.S. News and World Report*, *Newsweek* are useful as are the following materials especially prepared for elementary classroom use:

American Education Press 400 South Front Street Columbus, Ohio	<i>My Weekly Reader</i> <i>Current Events</i>	Grades 1-6 Grades 7-8
Civic Education Press 1733 K Street, N.W. Washington, D.C.	<i>The Young Citizen</i>	Grades 5-6
Scholastic Magazine 33 West 42nd Street New York City 36, New York	<i>Newstime</i> <i>Junior Scholastic</i>	Grades 4-5 Grades 6-8
The World News of the Week 1512 Orleans Street Chicago 10, Illinois	<i>Newsmap</i> (Large, weekly maps)	

Relation of current events to social studies

Current events contribute to social studies as a whole or to a specific unit of work in progress. Focusing on current happenings extends children's understanding of the world they live in, thus promoting social studies learnings even though the events dealt with have little relationship to the content of the unit of work under way. News reports of significant happenings are interpreted in terms of the physical and social setting that gave rise to the event—the same exploration for reasons why underlying any unit of work. News items are history in the making—usually open and unresolved and quite often controversial. Reporting the facts of a current news item accurately is not enough. The item requires discussion; its meanings should be explored in terms of its relation to past events and its significance for the future. No one can predict the outcome of today's events. Yet, decisions must be made for tomorrow's course of action. Current events can be used to provide practice in decision-making as children discuss events and, in the light of facts at hand, take a stand on issues. Children and teacher can become part of the sweep of history as news stories are followed from day to day, meanings discussed and possible outcomes predicted.

Current events can also add to children's understanding of a specific unit of work under way. Some sixth graders, having learned from available texts about Venezuela's rich oil resources, searched through current periodicals to find out about recent industrial developments in Venezuela, which the text (not a recent publication) had suggested might take place. Most units of work should include materials from current sources to up-date and verify text information, as well as to relate today's happenings to past events. Current events, either those unrelated or related to a specific unit of work, can contribute much to elementary school social studies.

Procedures for classroom use

The preceding paragraphs have emphasized the importance of dealing with the meaning of the events reported and discussed. It is the ability to give meaning to news—to interpret the new event in terms of things known—that is the important outcome

of current events. Some procedures leading to effective use of current events are indicated below.

HELPING CHILDREN SELECT NEWSWORTHY ITEMS. Wesley⁴ suggests several criteria for selecting current material for classroom use, some of which seem especially appropriate for elementary children.

Continuity: Does the news dealing with a continuing event reveal a trend, present another step in a continuing process?

Consequence: How significant, urgent or critical is the item? Does it require action or decision?

Utility: How important is it to individuals, groups, or nations?

Scope: What is the area of its importance—local, state, national, world?

Some news stories are important as follow-ups to a preceding news story, and children should recognize that today's events are related to yesterday's. Some news stories are important because they relate to an immediate concern of children and help relate the school world to the larger world of events.

Focus in the classroom may be on helping children select news items across a broad range of topics. Also helpful is the use of a rotating committee system in which groups have responsibility for reporting in a given area: world news, national news, local events, the world of sports, people in the news, or other agreed upon areas. As children assume responsibility for specific kinds of news for a given time, they learn to be selective and to utilize different sections of newspapers and magazines as sources.

Responsibility for keeping a bulletin board up-to-date (and justification of the importance of material posted on it) is another means of utilizing current events.

Some teachers find that assigning responsibility for following different news "stories" for a period of time is a good procedure. "Monitors" for special TV and radio news programs can volunteer for news reporting.

REPORTING AND DISCUSSING NEWS. Reporting news is never complete without discussion. In turn, accurate reporting is prerequisite to discussion.

⁴ Edgar B. Wesley and Mary A. Adams, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Revised 1952.

The who, where, when, what of a news story must be made explicit. The reporter must have these facts clearly in mind and a readily available news source for reference if questions arise. Some tests for the accuracy of the report itself may become a part of the procedure. For example, "partners" may report on the same event, telling their listeners of any variations described in different sources. Reporting the facts as given in a news report and checking the accuracy of these facts against other sources are both important factors. Testing against other sources is a beginning step in helping children distinguish between factual and editorialized reporting of news, and biased reporting and propaganda.

Effective reporting provides clues for the listeners. When the news is a follow-up of events previously discussed, the reporting pupils must help listeners make the connection between today's news and that previously reported. Identification of the locale of the news story by locating it on maps and globe is an aid to accurate interpretation. Most current events sessions make extensive use of maps and globes. Illustrations, when available, should be shared with the listeners.

Reporting focuses on unresolved issues and leads to discussion. The "What comes next?" aspect of current events provides a good springboard for discussion and opens the way for more extensive exploration by children.

Discussion proceeds best when the topic under consideration is one for which all pupils have some background. At the same time, discussion requires varied information and viewpoints. This means that current events must involve more than oral reading from a single source shared in common by every child. Children should be encouraged to use a variety of sources. Newspapers prepared for school use and made available within the classroom should be of several kinds and on several reading levels, TV, radio, newspapers and periodicals can contribute to the current events discussion, which must involve more than routine reporting, by one child after another, of unrelated bits of news. Procedures for assigning news-gathering responsibilities such as those mentioned in preceding paragraphs help focus on relevant news and give continuity to the events reported. Panel and committee presentations are also effective in initiating dis-

cussion. Discussing current events focuses on assessing the meaning of current happenings—their causes and possible results.

General procedures for reporting and discussing will be found in Chapter 8.

Using Maps

Maps of all kinds become excellent resources for social studies, as children become skilled in their use. Consistent instruction in and functional use of map skills are important parts of social studies. Map-making is discussed in Chapter 10 as a means of helping children organize information in a visual form as well as a means of developing map understanding and skills. Children who are themselves "map-makers" bring much understanding to the more technical maps that are part of social studies materials. Sequential development of map skills, beginning at the kindergarten level is carefully plotted in social studies to develop facility in the use of maps. Beginning steps in map reading occur before children handle and use maps as such; one might say that map skills are first established before children use "maps" at all. After a good beginning, of course, consistent instruction and practice in the use of maps is essential. Suggestions for beginning steps in map skills and for their later development include:

DEVELOPING MAP VOCABULARY. Primary children use various means to describe location as they explore their home, school, and community environment. Teachers, in asking primary children to tell how they go home from school, are aware of the great variation in ability to describe location. The child who says, "I go away from the school a while and then I go down the street by the gas station" has his own clues but is not very successful in communicating location to others. When he says, "I go north on Center Street until I come to the gas station on Temple Avenue, then I turn left, and my house is number 228 in the middle of the second block," he is using clues that are helpful to others. Describing location begins with use of a variety of location clue words such as *near, far, up, down, right, left, over, under*. In map reading the cardinal directions are the common north, south, east, west clues, which children should experience

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DEVELOPING MAP VOCABULARY. Primary children use various means to describe location as they explore their home, school, and community environment. Teachers, in asking primary children to tell how they go home from school, are aware of the great variation in ability to describe location. The child who says, "I go away from the school a while and then I go down the street by the gas station" has his own clues but is not very successful in communicating location to others. When he says, "I go north on Center Street until I come to the gas station on Temple Avenue, then I turn left, and my house is number 228 in the middle of the second block," he is using clues that are helpful to others. Describing location begins with use of a variety of location clue words such as *near, far, up, down, right, left, over, under*. In map reading the cardinal directions are the common north, south, east, west clues, which children should experience

in a variety of ways before using them to read formal maps. Locating where the sun rises and sets, using a compass to label directions in the classroom (with permanent compass on the floor or table) and on the playground (making sun-dials and weather vanes) are beginning steps in efficient use of direction terminology. A more precise vocabulary to describe location develops as children use globes and maps. The terms *continent*, *ocean*, *pole*, *equator*, *latitude*, *meridian*, *longitude* come into use. *Peninsula*, *isthmus*, *bay*, *island*, *sea*, *harbor* are terms outside the experience of some children and remain empty of meaning until clarified through models, pictures, and other means.

USING DIFFERENT MAP PROJECTIONS. Maps are representations and never wholly accurate. The globe gives a less distorted concept of the earth than most maps and should be a ready reference in every classroom. Even very little children can make discoveries about our world as they examine the large, slated globe. Comments made on examination of the globe reveal children's concepts: "The earth is big." "The earth goes around." "The blue shows water and the brown shows land. There's lots more water than land, isn't there?"

Care should be taken to establish the meaning of directions when flat maps are first used. Constructing facsimiles of streets, houses, communities on the floor helps establish the flat map idea. Many of the difficulties encountered in the tendency to confuse north with up and south with down can be eliminated by experience in making floor maps using blocks, construction, and other three dimensional material and by use of the globe. A preliminary experience that is helpful is an up high orientation to give children some feeling about maps. For example, children who see their playground from the third floor windows or who look down on their town from its tallest building recognize that things look smaller and flatter when we look down on them.

Children in intermediate and upper grades should use the globe and a variety of flat maps frequently. The use of both the Mercator projection and the polar projection should become common practice. Experience with relief maps showing elevation and those showing elevation by symbol are both necessary. Surface maps are as important as those showing political boundaries. In fact, the latter tend to *hide* some of the geographic factors

that may be of greater importance in human living than an arbitrary boundary line.

A variety of maps—including surface, rainfall, population, resources, transportation routes and products—should be used. Many maps, each designed to show one major feature, are superior to one comprehensive map. Pupils themselves can produce some of these *single feature maps*. Skill in interpreting maps begins with attention to the legend, or key to symbols, and this should be emphasized in both commercial and “home-made” maps.

RECOGNIZING CLUES AND USING SYMBOLS. Children should be aware that the distinguishing things in their environment can be described verbally, pictorially, and finally by symbol. Children who construct a house with its kitchen, living room, and other essentials are translating their mental image of home features into a facsimile of the real thing. When children paint a mural showing Main Street in our community, they are expressing pictorially what they have seen. What is actually seen and known is described and reproduced in concrete or pictorial form. The step to using symbols takes place in many ways. For example, the route for a trip to the bakery, plotted on large paper by the teacher, may at first show only the streets involved, the school, and the bakery. Later, as they have been noted, gas stations (blue squares), mail boxes (red oblongs), stop signs (red circles) may be added. When children make their own maps, they can determine for themselves how to represent the real things they have seen. This is not so with commercial maps. For this reason, maps using picture-type symbols are best for elementary school use.

Intermediate and upper grade children need help in visualizing what symbols used on maps represent, in developing meanings for the many geographic terms used in relation to maps that are outside their experience. Symbols may show the type, location, distribution, and quantity of geographical data. Familiarity with common geographers' symbols through instruction and practice is an important goal of map usage in these grades.

USING MAPS FOR REFERENCE. The use of maps should not be limited to social studies. Letters from far-away places, news of

RELIEF MAP COLOR CHART*

	red	Feet 10,000
	dark brown	5,000
	light brown	2,000
	yellow	1,000
	light green	500
	dark green	sea level
	gray-green	500
	light blue	5,000

* Color represents many things on a map. It is necessary to consult the legend and the key to determine the color meanings on each map. However, colors used on a relief map usually follow similar color designations. These become standard clues to elevation on most maps.

travelers known to children, events described on TV, furnish opportunity for locating places discussed on room maps. The locale of stories read, sometimes inferred and sometimes stated explicitly, can be located on the map. Current happenings take on new meanings as their location is determined. Use of Mercator projection, polar projection, and the globe in locating places discussed provides facility in the use of these basic tools. Children responsible for finding the exact location on the map should state the location in addition to pointing to it. Formosa's location can be identified in many ways, some more definitive than others:

An island off the coast of Asia.

An island off the coast of China.

An island separated from China by the Formosa Strait.

An island east of the China coast and north of the Philippine Islands.

An island off the coast of China between 20° and 25° north of the equator.

The ability to describe location is an important part of developing map skills.

Summary

Social studies uses and develops reading interests and skills. It provides both a reason for wide reading and a reason for instruction and practice in specific skills. Instruction, practice and use are brought into close relationship when reading and social studies support each other.

Reading is a thoughtful process; social studies reading is concerned with the meaning of factual content and its application. Teacher guidance in the use of many kinds of materials to meet many purposes is an important part of reading in social studies.

For Further Study

Reading in social studies is a source of information and ideas and at the same time provides an opportunity for developing important reading skills and attitudes. Your list of resources for the unit of work you have chosen should include reading materials of many kinds—references, texts, fiction—appropriate to the various reading abilities of the age-group involved.

1. List some of each kind of reading resource for your unit, and give your reasons for including each.

2. Try out on others an instructional procedure you would use in developing skill in:

- Locating specific information.

- Using maps and globes.

- Skimming.

- Testing information.

- Using the encyclopedia, atlas, or almanac.

- Reporting current events.

3. Examine several textbook series, such as those listed below or others, listing the books in the series and comparing their over-all objectives, the sequence through which these are developed, and general make-up of the books.

- D. C. Heath and Company—History on the March Series—W. Linwood Chase, Allen Nevins, and others.

- D. C. Heath and Company—Our Growing World Series—Lucy S. Mitchell and others.

Ginn and Company—Social Studies Series—Ernest W. Tiegs and Fay Adams.

The Macmillan Company—Basal Geography Series—Gertrude Whipple and Preston James.

Scott, Foresman and Company—Social Studies Series—Paul Hanna and others.

1. *Reading in the Social Studies.*

Artley, A. Sterl. "Critical Reading in Content Areas," *Elementary English*, February, 1956, 122-130.

Bond, Cuy L. and Eva B. Wagner. *Teaching the Child to Read*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. Chapter 14. Special considerations for dealing with reading materials in social studies.

Dawson, Mildred A. and Marian Zollingh. *Guiding Language Learning*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1957. Chapter 8. Practical suggestions for helping children use informational reading and reference books.

DeBoer, John J. and Martha Dallman. *The Teaching of Reading*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1960. What is involved in building comprehension and skill in locating information, followed by suggestions and examples in each area. See especially pp. 126-128, dealing with problems of comprehension in content subjects.

Krupp, Agnes. "Libraries: Motivation for Learning," *Education*, April, 1959, 490-494. Library materials are central to learning.

Lamoreaux, Lillian and Dorris May Lee. *Learning to Read Through Experience*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1943. Suggestions for using experience charts as a beginning step in reading.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Skills in the Social Studies*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1953, Chapter 6. How reading and listening skills may be developed through social studies at all grade levels.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook, Part II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957. Chapter 8. Reading, research, and reporting as allied skills essential to social studies.

Stauffer, Russell C. "A Directed Reading-Thinking Plan," *Education*, May, 1959, 527-532. An excellent outline of principles and assumptions basic to instruction for reading-thinking.

Tooze, Ruth and Beatrice Perham Krone. *Literature and Music As Resources for Social Studies*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Learning about other people and places through literature and music.

2. Using current events.

Jarolimek, John. *Social Studies in Elementary Education*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapter 12. Procedures and materials for utilizing current affairs as a part of the social studies program.

McCauley, J. D. "Current Affairs and the Social Studies," *Social Education*, January, 1959. The importance of current affairs in the lives of today's children.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum*, Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1955. Chapter 4. The importance of teaching current affairs, including controversial issues.

Wesley, Edgar B. and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Revised 1952. Chapter 20. The place of current events in social studies, criteria selection, and procedures for their use.

Wilson, Richard. "Using News to Teach Geography," *Social Education*, February, 1960, 56-57. Using geography adds meaning to the news.

3. Using maps and globes.

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Chapter 10.

Ewing, Parmer L. and Marion Seibel. *Fun With the Globe*. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom Co. Sets I and II. A workbook of activities using the globe, designed for children.

Harris, Ruby M. *The Rand-McNally Handbook of Map and Globe Usage*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1958. Suggestions for using map and globe for each grade level.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 10. Emphasis on the teaching needed in using maps and globes as sources of information.

National Council for the Social Studies, *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*, Nineteenth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1948. Chapter 12. Developing the ability to read and interpret maps; some concepts to be developed.

Thralls, Zoe. *The Teaching of Geography*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958. Chapters 2-4. Helping children understand maps, globes, pictures, graphs, and the landscape.

8

Using Language to Organize Information

Language arts and skills and social studies play reciprocal roles in the elementary school setting. The necessary language skills provide the media through which children assimilate and use information and, in turn, are strengthened by the social studies program. The language activities most commonly used in social studies serve two functions and can be classified accordingly as assimilative activities, in which children gather information, or as expressive language activities, in which children organize ideas in oral or written form. The thought processes underlying each classification, naturally, prevent a rigid division in classroom operations.

In social studies in the primary grades, the need for information usually grows out of things the children are doing. The wise teacher turns back to children the questions asked or problems raised and uses the occasion to teach children how to get needed information. Although it is ego-satisfying to the teacher to have answers for any and all children's questions, the real teaching job is to help children discover, through repeated practice, just how we locate and assimilate necessary information, test it, and put it to use. The teacher's job, then, is to provide enough experiences and sources of information, together with specific

instruction for their use, and then to stand back and let children learn.

Assimilating experiences, the *taking-in* side of social studies, might be classified as follows:

Listening	Experimenting
Looking	Reading
Handling	

Continuing help from the teacher is required if children are to grow in efficient use of these assimilative tools. Some of these were dealt with in Chapters 6 and 7, but repetition is made here as a reminder to consider the total use of language.

Using language to express one's newly gained information, ideas, thoughts, plans, in contrast to the *taking-in* use of language, is the expressive or *giving-out* phase of language. As children use learning resources to gain information, they need an opportunity to share their discoveries with others—an important part of learning for which many opportunities should be provided. These opportunities should include ways for organizing and using information already gained and present challenges for additional information.

Language activities especially appropriate for social studies are described in the following paragraphs. Although the language media discussed fulfill both the assimilative and expressive functions of language, the emphasis here in relation to social studies is on ways of organizing, using, comparing, and sharing information. Respect for accurate information, as well as skills in gaining and using it, develops as information is used and shared.

Conversing

The most commonly used language media in out-of-school life is conversation, making facility in sharing ideas in conversation a sound school goal. Social studies often provides a focus for conversation and a setting in which the participants' conversational skills develop.

Sharing through conversation tests information as each contribution is weighed by listeners and assayed in the light of other contributions. Conversation reveals "what we found out" and points out the limitless range of information available.

Much of oral communication in out-of-school life takes place in small groups, and similar opportunities should be provided within the elementary classroom. When information is of special interest to a small group only or when small groups undertake certain tasks, the children involved can share their information and discuss their plans and procedures. Opportunity to work and converse in small groups doesn't just happen. The teacher must be alert to the importance of small groups and consciously make provision for them.

Reporting

Reporting involves learning to take notes on information and learning to talk or write from notes about a given topic. Children who have reported on things observed, on interviews with parents and others, form the habit of adhering to a topic. Using reading as a basis for reporting should come only after many experiences in telling. If emphasis is placed on sharing information important to the listeners, the report will already have a point of focus. Because reporting is telling what one child has found out about something of interest to his listeners, it involves selection of key ideas. When reading materials furnish the basic information, selection of important ideas is the first requisite, and children who want to copy a report miss this basic idea. Experience in organizing ideas orally forms a good basis for using reading references for reports, and a long process of organizing ideas orally, beginning in early grades, should precede formal reporting. Teachers in the primary grades guide children through problems like the following:

"We told about a lot of things. Which ones shall we put in our newspaper this morning?"

"If we are going to make a picture book about our trip, what pictures shall we make? Which ones come first?"

"If we want to play 'The Three Billy Goats Gruff,' who will we need to have in the play? Who talks first?"

These are beginning steps toward later written reports, which also require selection of key ideas, directed toward a specific topic and presented in some kind of sequence.

Reporting is a structured means of relaying information.

A second grader, whose grandfather was a fireman, volunteered to get information on two questions raised—"How long do firemen stay on duty?" and, "What do firemen do at the firehouse when there is no fire?" The teacher's role was to help the second graders formulate their questions and discover that they had resources for answering them within their own group. Later, when the information was available, he helped them establish the listener-teller situation essential in any reporting.

Reporting becomes more structured as children discover that sharing information with each other broadens the scope and amount of information with which a group can deal. Accepting responsibility for gathering and sharing information on an assigned question, problem, or topic is a beginning step. After this, the children put to use the skills necessary for locating and selecting data and for refining and organizing the information.

Reporting can be a deadly social studies procedure when its purposes are misunderstood. Children are more likely to develop competence and skill in gathering and relaying data when the following questions have been answered affirmatively:

Do the topics or questions to be explored stem from children's concerns? Few of us can tackle and organize a mass of data unless we have some interest in knowing more about a particular topic.

Are data available from a wide variety of sources? Much of the value of reporting lies in selecting relevant data while comparing and discarding other data. Reporting at all grade levels should be directed toward selection and synthesis of materials from many sources—observation, reading, pictures, questioning resource people, and so on. Throughout the grades, the habit of critical analysis and selection of data is an important goal. One needs, therefore, many sources from which to select pertinent data.

Is the reporting timely and important? Nothing is more boring than to listen endlessly to information that has no relationship to immediate concerns or to facts with which one is already familiar. The group working on a mural showing the wagon trains moving west on the Oregon Trail may take time out while they find answers to questions raised by some of their members, such as, "Were the wagons pulled by oxen or horses?" and "How can we show the wagons crossing the rivers?" Chalk and brushes

"What do other books say?"

"What does the new school encyclopedia say?"

Probably the content of the reports have long since been forgotten by both the reporter and listeners. But, critical analysis is a guide to thinking processes all through life. In this case, the teacher kept out of a decision role, directing conflicting information into an exercise in critical thinking.

Is the group evolving and improving its own standards of performance? Although language books give some guide lines to reporting standards for various grade levels, the greatest improvement comes when children analyze their own reporting-listening behavior and set standards for improving both.

Whenever reporting is used, it is important that children have some guide lines to effective relaying of information. However, it should be recognized that children will vary in their re-

PLANNING SOCIAL STUDIES REPORTS

1. Decide on a topic.
2. Find out all you can about it.
3. Choose important points to tell about.
4. Be sure you have the facts straight.
5. Be ready to answer questions.

HOW DID I DO?

Did I——

- select important ideas?
- speak so all could hear?
- try to interest my listeners?
- tell enough, but not too much?

porting ability, as they do in all others, and that no single standard can apply. Guide lines established represent goals rather than arbitrary standards of performance. Both reporter and listeners share responsibility, and guide lines should include both. The teacher can make sure that children use language texts for the help they give in reporting. Better still, as children analyze their own procedures, they can develop suggestions of their own such as these developed by a fifth grade group.

Discussion

Discussion is another form of oral sharing of information. Every teacher wants assurance that children can manage factual information, pulling from it the items that have meaning for them. The question-and-answer type of recitation was how teachers once satisfied themselves that information (necessarily limited in scope) had been acquired. The recitation response to the teacher's question put the burden of organizing the information on the teacher. Remembering was the only skill required of the pupil.

Discussion provides opportunity for children to share information with each other in a more creative way. At the same time, the teacher can assess the depth and breadth of information children are acquiring. For the teacher, guiding a discussion effectively requires a more complex set of skills than hearing a recitation.

In discussion, the teacher has many goals in mind for different individuals in the group. They center around a major goal of helping children express effectively the information they have acquired and its meaning and use to them. Usually discussions revolve around problems. Social studies discussions revolve around two major kinds of problems: (1) problems of information, such as, "What dangers did pioneers face as they traveled West?" and (2) problems of procedure, such as, "How shall we organize our frieze so that it shows how trees get made into lumber?"

At times, discussions may center around other kinds of problems. These may be problems of behavior—"Why didn't we accomplish much today?" or problems of feeling—"How would you feel if it happened to you?"

Any problem brought to the group for discussion must be of concern to some or all of the members and of enough importance to require that all become involved. From this point on, the teacher becomes the discussion guide—but not always the obvious discussion leader.

The teacher's role in guiding the discussion might include the following:

HELPING CHILDREN DEFINE THE PROBLEM OR TOPIC FOR DISCUSSION. It has often been said that once a problem is clearly stated, it is well on the way to being solved. When thirty or more children are to be involved, the clarification of the topic to be discussed is an essential step. Many times discussions fail because participants were not hooked on in the beginning stages.

ARRANGING A SATISFACTORY PHYSICAL SETTING. Discussion takes place when the participants can see each other. Taking time to arrange for some type of face-to-face setting—placing chairs or desks in a circle, facing rows toward each other and so on—is a preliminary step. The teacher must not be in the limelight; in discussion, he aims to guide—not instruct or lead.

GUIDING THE DISCUSSION SO THAT MEANINGS ARE EXTENDED. The teacher will need to stay out of the "telling" role, acting as a moderator to ensure that many viewpoints are examined. Through raising questions or adding comments he will point out neglected areas and help children recognize and avoid empty verbalizations.

FOCUSING THE DISCUSSION AS IT PROCEEDS BY SUMMARIZING MAIN POINTS OCCASIONALLY. Having them re-stated or listing them on the blackboard helps clarify main points. This comes after wide discussion. If decisions are reached and action is to be taken, the teacher will want to make sure that all understand the decisions made and next steps to be taken.

As in reporting, the language texts can be used as reference material in determining appropriate discussion standards, following analysis of discussion standards by the class itself. A sixth grade should show some progress beyond earlier levels of discussion. For example, the following discussion standards illustrate primary and intermediate grade goals as developed by two classes. They reflect both the increase in competence one might expect

and the unique demands of the groups that developed them. The stated goals should result from class discussion and agreement and should be referred to frequently in improving discussion skills. They are agreed upon guides to action.

DISCUSSION STANDARDS

1. Stick to the topic.
2. Listen to others.
3. Speak only when you have a point to make.
4. Speak so everyone can hear.
5. Ask questions if an idea is not clear.
6. Suggest action to be taken.

DISCUSSION

Listen to others.

Wait your turn to speak.

..

Tell important things.

Using Written Language

Wide experience in oral expression of ideas precedes writing. When it seems necessary to have a record of information, plans, or events, the need for written forms of expression becomes apparent. In the primary grades, the recording is often done by the teacher at the dictation of the children. Thus, a report of a class activity, a letter of invitation or inquiry, or a plan of action may be composed by the class but be written down by the teacher. When children are able to handle the tools of writing, they do the recording task themselves. Expressing one's self

with clarity, force, and integrity stems from having something important to say, and social studies can furnish many occasions for writing. For primary children these include:

Dictated reports of study trips.

Reports of Experiments.

Direction charts (such as How to Make Butter).

Keeping Records.

Letters, dictated in part, to be completed by individuals, such as, invitation to parents to see an exhibit, request for permission to visit the firehouse, thank you letter to a resource visitor.

In the intermediate and upper grades, too, the purpose for writing must be clearly established, as this frequently dictates form. When the fifth grade, for example, wanted to keep a record of their trip through a nearby automobile assembly plant, writing took two forms. First, children were involved in recording where they went and what they saw—a straightforward reporting of the facts in chronological sequence. In addition, they recalled their feelings about the noise and motion in the plant and their reactions. Some children chose to express this in writing.

The value of writing stems from the expression of the author's unique ideas to the reader. Are reports to be compiled for later use of the class? . . . for assembling in a booklet for the library? . . . for inclusion in a class compilation? . . . for inclusion in his own personal file? Once the purpose is clear, the focus can be on the quality of writing necessary. Is the written report to be included in a compilation of factual content? If so, careful note taking and checking of facts become part of the process. Does the compilation tend toward creative expression? Then, through writing and rewriting, can we make words express our unique ideas?

Once children are able to express ideas in writing, some systematic procedures for proofreading should be instituted. Proofreading by one's "partner" or by reading aloud helps catch technical errors. Proofreading and rewriting for more precise expression of thought should be encouraged and should precede emphasis on correctness. What value correctness, if the idea is banal?

Creative Writing

The way in which social studies information is utilized, as described in this and the next chapter, calls for creative expression in language and art media. Creative expression results from personal reaction to experiences and information. Social studies, concerned as it is with feelings and attitudes and using experiences out of which these grow, provides a fertile field for creativity. Creative writing may be one of the important outcomes of social studies.

Creative writing is approached with oral language before children are able to record their ideas for themselves. Primary teachers help children "hear" rhythmic sound of words or particularly apt ways of expressing ideas on the part of some individuals. This ear for unique expression is an important part of written prose or poetry. Dictated stories, either individual or group, give young children an opportunity to put personal reactions into symbol form. Frequently, first attempts at expressing ideas are factual. For example, the first grader's cooperative story below is a factual account with a final reaction line.

OUR TRIP

We saw trucks, trucks, trucks.
We saw a bread truck.
We saw a laundry truck.
We saw a mail truck.
We saw a parade,
A parade of trucks!

Children building an airport, say:

Br-r-r-r goes my airplane.
It's going up!
Whooooee goes my airplane.
It's going to land!

With young children, creative expression is usually a by-product of some on-going activity such as construction or dramatic play.

Children in the middle grades can utilize social studies experiences for individual creative writing. Vivid experiences—a field trip, a movie, a story read frequently—create needs to

express feelings. Children vary in the freedom with which they express their reactions. Creative writing cannot be produced on demand, but it can be encouraged through providing experiences, inspiration, support, and time to write. For this reason, the teacher will be alert to those social studies experiences that provide the raw material for creative expression. As children mature, they become more alert to the effect of words on others. Creative expression then becomes a means of sharing personal feelings. Thus, writing focuses on ideas and feelings and their expression in words. Older children need practice in rewriting to improve clarity and vividness of expression. The last step is proofreading for correctness of spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary.

Some creative expression will be in the form of verse writing. Usually, first verse writing is a group production when the teacher picks up wordings with common appeal. Later, children produce individual creations—either by dictation to the teacher or by writing for themselves. Verse writing should emphasize rhythm and imagery; rhyming is not essential and, in fact, may hinder creative expression.

Creative writing can be shared. Hearing a prose or verse composition read aloud is a satisfying experience. Booklets or a compilation, group or individual, offer other means of sharing.

Creative expression of all kinds is an important part of social studies because of its relationship to creative thinking and the total thinking process. Russell states:

Creative thinking involves production of new ideas, whereas, critical thinking . . . involves reaction to others' ideas or to one's own previous ideas. Critical thinking can be creative in that it can produce new insights for the individual, but these insights are concerned with previously established conditions. Creative thinking is very close to the problem-solving process. . . . It may be described as "problem solving plus."¹

Dramatizing

Dramatizing is a natural media in which children may put ideas to work. Young children tend to use the free playing out of roles and situations as a way of extending and re-enforcing un-

¹ David Russell, *Children's Thinking* (Boston: Ginn & Co., 1956), p. 306.

derstanding of their world and the relationships within it. This type of play in which young children engage so freely has many observable values. Watching children in unstructured situations outside the classroom will give some clues to these values.

A five-year-old, making all the appropriate noises of a fire chief on his way to a fire as he rushes through the kitchen, has accumulated information from TV, radio, picture books, and conversation on this particular phase of living in a community. Somehow he has assimilated and organized the facts for his own use—satisfying (if noisy) play. Casual inquiry from an adult as to whom he is (if only to stop the “sirens” for a moment) brings the response:

“I am the fire chief. I am blowing my siren because I’m on my way to a fire.”

“What will you do when you get there?”

“I’ll get off my truck and put out the fire.”

“How will you put it out?”

After a slight thinking pause, the answer comes, “I’ll chop it out with my ax!”

All his sources of information had not made clear for him how firemen put out a fire.

This out-of-school incident is typical of the playing out processes children go through on their own dozens of times daily. Information is assimilated, organized, and put to use—usually in relation to adult roles. Information (and misinformation) gained from a variety of impression sources is tried on. The process begins with the things children want to do or be, and their reservoir of information is called on to achieve their purposes. Through trying on adult roles and reshaping their play experiences, children reach some understanding of the organization of community life and its relation to their lives. The zest they have for dramatizing roles and situations attests to its value as a learning activity.

When this free play takes place within the classroom, there is opportunity to deepen and guide the understandings children take from it. For example, children playing out the role of policeman in out-of-school situations frequently dramatize the gun-and-shooting aspect of his job. Under guidance within the classroom, young children are helped to a more realistic concept of

the policeman's role simply by asking, "What things do policemen do?" Often they can talk with a policeman about his job and in other ways make the play match reality as much as possible. Clarification often results from questions raised after play, rather than before.

Many kinds of dramatization activities are useful in social studies—from loosely structured dramatic play activities to those complete with plot and lines. The value of dramatization for social studies is that it calls for and uses information, and tests understandings in fulfilling its purposes. The processes used in dramatization at all levels might be listed as follows:

1. Wanting to do or be something.
2. Bringing information from a variety of sources to bear on the activity.
3. Checking occasionally to see if the action is appropriate; if information acquired squares with the action taken or information already at hand; if additional information is needed.

Dramatization activities and some suggestions for their use are presented in the following paragraphs.

Dramatic Play

Dramatic play is the free playing out of familiar roles and activities. It differs from other forms of dramatization discussed later in that it follows no plot or story-line but is improvised as the participants play out familiar roles and situations. One has only to watch children as they play on their own to recognize how continually and richly they resort to this medium. Because it is used so universally by children, it adapts well to classroom use. Within the classroom, under teacher guidance, dramatic play contributes to children's learnings in important ways.

For example, the second graders, whose community with its buildings, streets, and equipment was partially completed, wanted to play in their town. After they had had one day of play, a listing was made of the people necessary to their "town."

the fire chief (listed first—apparently the most appealing job to the boys)
the fireman

the postman
the service station man
the grocery man
a traffic officer
the bakery man
some people to live in the town
a sea-captain (someone had brought in a facsimile of a "sea-captain" hat. No one chose to play this role when choices were made later.)

A teacher was suggested, but since the "town" had no schoolhouse as yet the idea was discarded.

After the listing of roles came selection of people to fill them. The teacher reminded them that those not playing today would have a chance another day, but, since not every child was involved, decisions about other jobs were necessary—finishing a truck, painting signs, completing the airport buildings. A few children chose unrelated activities—painting at the easel, reading.

Following the division of labor children set to their agreed-upon tasks in their "town." The teacher watched the children during their play, noting individual participation, misconcepts about roles, relationship with other children, and other factors. After a period of approximately twenty minutes she signaled all children to return to the circle. Children engaged in other tasks were heard briefly concerning their progress; then she directed attention to the dramatic play group by asking how the participants felt about playing in the "town."

One child spoke up vociferously about the fire chief. He kept getting in everyone's way, running around asking if they had a fire he could put out! Other children seconded this criticism. The teacher turned to the fire chief who said it was his job to put out fires so he had to know if there were any fires. The teacher asked how fires were reported, and suggestions came thick and fast about fire alarms and telephone calls. From this discussion developed a more realistic concept of the fire chief's role—of being "on call" at the firehouse. But the fire chief objected. He thought being fire chief was no fun at all—he just sat at the firehouse! Suppose no calls came in? Again the teacher referred the question to the children. One child thought firemen played

poker all the time. Others remembered how shiny fire engines and equipment always looked—and the time involved keeping them that way. One child remembered the drive for discarded toys that were to be repaired by firemen and given to children's hospitals. As possibilities for many different answers were seen, all the children recognized the need for finding out more about firemen and what they do. Even though some guides to action resulted from the discussion, they saw the need for more information before the role of fire chief could be played realistically.

Other problems were discussed. This town needed another service station, more groceries for the store, traffic signs for the street, and so on. As comments seemed to subside the teacher suggested that the children put away their equipment and get ready for recess.

While no two play sessions are the same, the values to be seen in the episode described are typical.

Children had an opportunity to organize and use information at hand in a variety of ways as problems of concern to them were raised. In the process, the validity of their information was tested through use, misconcepts discovered, and gaps in essential information recognized. Many questions and problems were left open as a stimulant for seeking further information.

Children used a variety of means for expressing their ideas orally, in action, through construction, and painting. Vocabulary and concepts new to many children were acquired.

Children entered into the activity to a degree meaningful to them, with each child gaining confidence as he related his skills and abilities to group concerns. For some children the physical activity provided release from emotional tension; for all it provided a balance of quiet and active play.

Children gained practice in democratic living as they shared tools and materials, as they learned to take turns, as they learned to work with others, as they learned to share ideas and respect ideas of others through planning, doing, evaluating.

Children had an opportunity to add to basic social understandings as they tried out roles of many people in a community; and their conceptions of how each of these functioned became more realistic.

The teacher, in the dramatic play session described, arranged the period so that she was free to observe the children in action. What the teacher learns about children helps to shape future planning and play. Observation is focused on making assessments in several areas.

Social relationships and children's social behavior are revealed as children enter into play. Children who are loners, who find it difficult to venture into new activities, to change plans or to hold to a plan are identified, and ways to meet their needs are sought.

Misconcepts may be revealed in the ways children play out roles and situations or as they plan or evaluate procedures. The child who played the town banker by calling "Come and get some money" had a pleasing but not entirely realistic concept of that role! The teacher's planning includes ways to help children recognize their own misconcepts.

Need for providing further learning resources, materials for use in dramatic play, or for constructing new "props" are determined. Providing additional resources in anticipation of children's needs is one of the teacher's most important tasks.

Above all the teacher is concerned with creating a free and purposeful atmosphere within the classroom. In its real sense, dramatic play involves being rather than playing. The teacher should offer continued opportunity for children to become deeply involved in the roles and situations of the dramatic play.

Social studies content provides limitless opportunities for dramatic play.

Playing in our house.

Playing roles of community helpers (firemen, policemen).

Playing in our store.

Playing trains, ships, airplanes.

Playing pioneers, Navajos.

Dramatic play usually follows an action-information continuum. For example, dramatic play centering around the airport may have to be interrupted until runways are constructed, then again as need for ticket office, control towers, and so on,

are realized, and again until needed information is gathered concerning the jobs of pilots, navigators, and control tower operators.

Although dramatic play is an effective social studies learning activity, it requires thoughtful teacher guidance to see that conditions for zestful play are met. The teacher's role is that of facilitating the play. Random play, silliness, is often a signal that more thoughtful planning is needed. Planning along the following lines is apt to result in meaningful dramatic play.

Teacher planning

Plan understandings to be developed through dramatic play. Even though the social learnings through the give-and-take of mutual tasks are an important outcome, dramatic play can also build important social studies understandings. For example, when kindergarten children play in their playhouse, they increase their own social interaction skills as they go about their "house-keeping" and talk with each other in the process. In addition, they are acquiring, as a basis for later understanding of people throughout the world, understandings about families—the things they do together, the way family members fulfill their roles, and above all the likenesses and differences of family patterns of behavior. They are learning to generalize, testing their own concepts in the light of new knowledge.

Plan learning resources that may be used when the need for them arises. This may also involve planning the sequence of playing and the need for additional information to satisfy play in such a way that one fortifies the other. Possible field trips, audio-visual aids, books, people must be planned in advance for timely use.

Plan possible construction materials and activities that will further dramatic play. If a study of the harbor is planned, are boats to play with available? Will large blocks be used or will lumber and tools be used in constructing boats? Decision will be a result of the teacher's knowledge of the children and their needs. Dramatic play usually deepens as things to make it more realistic are constructed or devised to satisfy play needs.

Arrange environment conducive for play. Dramatic play re-

quires space. This often means rearranging the room environment, either temporarily or permanently, so that floor space is available. If large blocks are used, the setting for dramatic play can be dismantled after each session, but there is much value in the pioneer fireplace, the fort, the plane, the airport constructed so that they have for a time a permanent place in the room. Storage places for properties and information sources, space for construction in process should also be planned.

Planning with children

Dramatic play seldom begins without some information and some stimulus in the form of things to play with. A first play period is often quite brief, with emphasis on the information and things needed to make it better next time. With large groups of children dramatic play proceeds better when only a manageable proportion of the group are involved on any one day. This means other related activities—constructing, making needed articles, finding relevant information, and so on, should be planned to free teacher for observing. Planning immediately preceding play considers several things.

Help children connect the previous day's planning and evaluation with today's plans. Yesterday's evaluation period may have revealed several needs that can be met today. What will the fire chief do today in light of yesterday's comments? On the basis of yesterday's play, today's planning proceeds. Newly completed construction or other materials may be ready for use. The new gas station can be installed, or the price-tags for the bakery goods may be ready. Items in the process of preparation occupy some children's time.

Help children organize for play. What roles does this play session require? Once roles are determined, designation of children to fulfill them is made, usually on the basis of choice but with some attention to taking turns in those that are coveted. Places to play and materials to play with are also discussed and clarified; reminders are made concerning stopping at an arranged signal. The children are then free to begin playing.

Usually no prearranged sequence of events is planned. The value in dramatic play lies in playing out the action called for by the role.

Participation during dramatic play

The teacher usually observes children at play, jotting down notes that may be helpful in a subsequent evaluation period. Behavior of children, their comments, difficulties, use of material are a few of the things a teacher might refer to, as well as any concepts needing increased development or information. Play deepens from day to day as new problems are met and resolved, new information utilized. Sometimes the teacher enters into dramatic play as a member of the group to gain rapport or suggest additional play possibilities. Occasionally it seems wise to talk with individuals and groups during play if, by doing so, more and better learning will take place. He should also note any materials needed or "props" to make playing more satisfying. These may require time out for construction.

Evaluation with children following dramatic play

Evaluation sometimes involves only the group involved in playing. Usually, however, the whole group shares in the evaluation since all participate in playing from time to time and since most of the children are involved in activities related to it. More important, good ideas and suggestions concerning problems raised may come from those not directly involved in today's play.

Encourage children to talk about their play activities, bringing to the group any problems they have faced. Certain happenings should be selected for emphasis because of the learnings involved. The focus may be on problems involving ways of using tools and materials, on ways of working together, or on the concepts underlying the situations and roles played.

Help children focus on concepts that need clarification, and on information, materials, and procedures that will make the next play session more interesting. The teacher is often an expediter here, making sure that resources needed are available.

Help children record plans for future action. The teacher usually serves as a recorder of children's plans on which to base play for succeeding days. Planning has little value unless it leads to action. Recording plans made following evaluation enables teacher and children to use these as a point of departure on ensuing days.

Dramatic play for different age levels

Dramatic play reflects the maturity levels of participating children. In kindergarten and first grade, play is apt to use simple settings and changes in plans from day to day with different participants. *Within the day's play itself, shifting of plans occurs* when new ideas emerge and when leadership within the group shifts or new individual interests take hold. As children mature, their play takes on more continuity and plans made are followed through. Maturing children want reality. They are willing to postpone play in order to gather information or to make articles that will add to realism. As children mature, they move from playing alone within the dramatic play setting to playing with other children in similar activities, to cooperative planning. Children vary in the ease and timing of progression from one level to the next.

Older children want more structure in their play and give greater attention to detail. For this reason, dramatic play tends to lead to dramatizations of other more formal kinds.

Informal Dramatizations

Sometimes stories that children have heard or read or that they have made up lend themselves to dramatization. Dramatizing a story is different from dramatic play in that there is a plot—a predetermined sequence of events. Like dramatic play, informal dramatization of a story requires characters and properties. Unlike dramatic play, the action is known and planned in advance. Preplanning usually involves the following:

1. Roles. Who is in the story? Who will play each role?
2. Setting. Where does the story happen? What can we use to suggest the things needed for the play to proceed?
3. Properties and costumes. How can we tell one character from another by what he wears?

In informal dramatization, no attempt is made to memorize lines. The story should be so familiar that each child can interpret the lines in his own way. In fact, many children should participate—either because the story requires many actors or because the story is played out several times with different sets of actors, each interpreting the story in his own way. The part of

the group not participating becomes the audience, although sometimes the whole group is engaged in playing out the story. In this respect, it differs from dramatic play, which never has an audience situation. The informal dramatization may be so satisfying to the players that the play may be polished for presentation to a larger audience.

Informal dramatizations of folk tales and simple stories are frequently used in connection with the reading and language arts program. These forms of expression are equally helpful for developing insight into ways of living of other times and places and so earn their place in the social studies program as well.

Mr. Nicholas' fourth graders, for example, were discussing with their teacher the Spanish land and sea expeditions in California colonization attempts. On the spur of the moment they assigned roles—the Spanish leader, Galvez, who promoted the colonizing plans, the leaders of the expeditionary forces, and the people of Mexico who came to hear about their colonization plans. The classroom became the plaza in Loreto with the "residents" waiting eagerly to be convinced they should join the expedition. As Galvez spoke grandly of the glory of Spain, the "plain people" responded. What if we get sick on the way? Suppose the Indians are unfriendly? Is there enough food there? Will we ever see our families again? These fourth grade "explorers," using the facts at their command and their vivid imaginations, had become the eighteenth century explorers.

Convincing the people of the value of the trip took more information and persuasive power than Galvez and his two leaders could muster among them. The play stopped; the fourth graders agreed there must have been more reasons than were offered. It scarcely took the teacher's comment, "I just don't know whether Galvez would have got me to go—he must have had other reasons," to turn everyone to available books in preparation for another try the next day. And the next day's attempt did add convincing arguments as Galvez pleaded necessity of defense against the Russians moving down from the North, Father Serra presented a moving plea for civilizing and converting the Indians to Christianity, and Captain Portola spoke of the riches in store in the great valleys of California.

This informal dramatization not only made this episode in California history come alive by involving children intellectually,

physically, and emotionally; it also led them to utilize fully all the resources at their command.

Plays

The production of a play requires still more preplanning and structure. For purposes of social studies, emphasis should be on a reasonably finished product. More important, content and procedures should be well understood by the participants. The problems of planning involve the following questions:

1. Who are the characters in the story? What do they say? How do they act?
2. What scenes and costumes are needed?
3. How does the conversation in the play go? What action accompanies it?

Sometimes the play's lines may be written. More often, they are practiced orally until the actors are secure in their roles.

Television brings dramatization of all kinds into the lives of today's children. Often these screen plays are accepted as literal truth by young viewers. Do all good cowboys ride white horses? Do all "bad men" omit shaving? Can you always tell the hero from the villain by his grammar? Dramatization in which children themselves set the time and place and play out the story may be a necessary step to critical analysis.

search for a tree for a dugout, and second the burning out of the log to make the canoe. The pantomime carried the story except for introductions. The significant steps in man's use of water for transportation, as determined by children's research, became another act in the total production.

Radio Plays, Tape Recorders

In a radio play, the voice and sound effects carry the story. Such a play has the advantage of not requiring properties or costumes; nor are characters required to act. The illusion of reality is transmitted by aural means only.

Events difficult to stage can be presented effectively through this means. For example, a sixth grade, during their study of the story of aviation, dramatized the story of Daedalus and Icarus. Sound effects and dialogue made it an effective presentation that emphasized these early thoughts of flying, without its becoming a time-consuming production.

If the school has a microphone, the play can be broadcast. Even if the microphone is only a tin can on a stand or if the players are out of sight, much of the effect remains. A radio play needs careful planning and script writing as well as many rehearsals to incorporate sound effects.

Tape recorders are extremely useful in the upper grades to record radio plays for later presentation. Getting a play on tape requires team work of the highest order, but the results pay a high dividend in satisfaction.

Puppet Plays

Puppet plays have many advantages. There are puppets to suit every child's craft ability—simple stick puppets, paper bag puppets, fold dolls, and hand puppets of varying complexity. A puppet gives the shy child a reason for speaking. A puppet play can accommodate almost any number of children. It is highly adaptable to content. Although the puppet play may be extremely simple in form, it requires planning of the characters, the script (not necessarily written out in detail), the sequence. In addition, it requires planning and making the puppet characters.

The puppet play is delightfully adaptable to almost any

PAPER BAG PUPPETS



USING PUPPETS. Planning and producing a puppet play provides many opportunities for organizing and presenting ideas in many forms of speaking and writing.

area of study in social studies. For example, in their dairy study, a small group of children undertook to describe a day at the dairy farm with paper bag puppets; a Holstein and a Guernsey

cow explained to the Jersey cow, new to the farm, what her day would be like on the farm. The children had the fun of making the puppets. In addition, the attention to factual content in the script was a good indication of how well this small group could incorporate their acquired information.

The value of dramatization activities in social studies are many. All forms of "home-grown" dramatization call for critical selection and use of factual content. Accurate and specific information is put to work in creative ways. Settings, props, costumes, puppets, and so on provide opportunities for functional art and construction activities. Suggestions for some of these are included in Chapter 9.

Summary

Social studies provides a rich source of ideas that require organization and expression, both in speaking and writing. Language skills develop only when there is need to communicate; social studies creates both the need and the opportunity to use language in many ways. Conversation, reporting, and discussion are some of the uses of spoken language in social studies. Written language is used in summaries, reports, letters, and creative expression. Dramatizing, including tape recordings, pantomime and puppet plays, uses oral language skills, and, in some cases, requires prior organization in written form.

Language and social studies play reciprocating roles. Social studies requires the use of a variety of language skills and provides the setting for instruction and practice in the use of these skills. As children recognize the need to use a specific language tool, instruction and practice become more effective, and learning is greatly enhanced.

For Further Study

Teacher guidance is needed in the many formal and informal uses of language in social studies.

1. Suggest some guidelines to help children (of the grade level of your choice) to:

- Discuss plans for a mural or booklet.

- Share and discuss information about one of the problems dealt with in your unit.

Report some information gained.

Report on a committee's accomplishments.

2. In addition to the day-to-day uses of language, plan some summarizing activities that use language to organize ideas and information gained in relation to your unit. Present a sample of one of these, and justify the procedures used.

1. Oral communication.

Cortright, Rupert L. and George L. Hinds. *Creative Discussion*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Chapters 1, 2, 7, 8, and 11. Although focused on discussions as a procedure in adult groups, this book provides good background for teachers' use in dealing with discussion as a procedure in classrooms. Discussion is viewed as a means of cooperation.

Herrick, Virgil E. and Leland B. Jacobs, (editors). *Children and the Language Arts*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Chapter 6. A point of view about guiding children toward effective speaking through the use of varied speaking experiences.

Munkres, Alberta. *Helping Children in Oral Communication*, Number 19, Practical Suggestions for Teaching. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. Examples of conversing, discussing, reporting, and making speeches are presented and analyzed. The last section of the pamphlet has suggestions for helping children use words effectively.

Pronovost, Wilbert with Louise Kingman. *The Teaching of Speaking and Listening in the Elementary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1959. Chapter 3. Group discussion of many kinds illustrated, including informal, panel discussions and those using parliamentary procedures.

Wilt, Miriam E. *Creativity in the Elementary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959. Creative expression in all its forms. Read the whole pamphlet for a point of view about creative expression.

2. Written communication.

Burrows, Alvina et al. *They All Want to Write*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1952. Teachers tell their ways to develop creative self-expression in both personal and practical writing.

Cole, Natalie. *The Arts in the Classroom*. New York: The John Day Co., 1942. Strong emphasis on freeing children's ability to express themselves by a teacher who does it.

Dawson, Mildred A. and Marion Zollinger. *Guiding Language Learning*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1957. Chapters 11 and 12. Oral communication in many forms as a basis for developing facility in speaking, listening, and writing.

3. *Dramatic activities.*

California State Department of Education, *Education in Early Childhood*. Sacramento, Calif.: State Department of Education, 1956. Chapter 8. Dramatic play as a natural media for the use of language and teacher procedures in facilitating it.

Fitzgerald, Burdette. *Let's Act the Story*. San Francisco: Fearon Publishers, 1957. A leader's guide for dramatizing children's literature that is also useful in helping children dramatize their own ideas and stories.

Hanna, Lavone A. et al. *Unit Teaching in the Elementary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955. Chapter 9. Dramatic play, with examples of discussions involved. Other dramatizing media.

Hatchett, Ethel L. and Donald H. Hughes. *Teaching Language Arts in Elementary Schools*. New York: The Ronald Press, 1956. Chapter 9. Dramatization in all its forms as an aid to language development.

Herrick, Virgil E. and Leland B. Jacobs (editors). *Children and the Language Arts*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Chapter 15. Values of creative dramatic activities and many ways of releasing creativity.

Siks, Ceraldine. *Creative Dramatics: An Art for Children*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Although stress is on creative dramatics as a special activity for children, the point of view is applicable to dramatization related to social studies. Chapters 1 through 4 and Chapter 6 are especially helpful to the classroom teacher.

Tidyman, Willard and Margaret Butterfield. *Teaching the Language Arts*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Chapter 5. Problems and processes in many kinds of dramatic presentations.

9

Organizing and Expressing Ideas Through Art

Emphasis in the classroom today is on a variety of activities designed to help children select, test, retain or discard, and use pertinent information. Social studies puts this information to work. In the old pattern of study, recite, test, the teacher carried the burden of organizing information into a useful whole. In modern elementary classrooms, the teacher helps children find their own ways of assimilating and organizing information, often in tangible form. Putting information into tangible form requires a high level of understanding; it acts as a check on information acquired and a stimulus toward greater accuracy; it provides the less verbal child with an adequate way of expressing his ideas and at the same time creates opportunities for him to express himself orally; it provides opportunity for ordering and arranging information in ways that make sense to the learner.

These activities center in large part around art skills and their development. In social studies, however, the focus is not on art skills but on art as the carrier of ideas. Art media used extensively in social studies and some suggestions for their use are discussed below.

Murals

The term mural refers to a large scale wall painting. In its adapted usage as a carrier of ideas related to social studies, it is a long connected picture depicting a scene, event, or a sequence of events. In its use for a series of scenes, it is interchangeable with the term *frieze*. A frieze can be adapted for use in a movie box so that the sequence of scenes, mounted on rollers, is revealed as the rollers are turned.

The teacher's purpose in using a mural may be to help children clarify and organize their ideas, to provide a reason for group and individual research, for discussion, decision, and action. The children's purpose in making the mural is simple—to express their ideas concerning some phase of the social studies topic under study. The choice of subjects is endless. A mural may show an incident or scene:

Inside Fort Boonesboro.

A Mexican Market Place.

The Landing of the Pilgrims.

The Airport.

Or, it may show the sequential development of an idea:

How Pioneers Traveled Westward.

How We Get Our Milk.

The Story of Transportation.

How Trucks Help Us.

Planning the Mural

Once children have determined their subject, help in planning is needed. Teacher and children should plan together such things as:

The content

The general title or topic of the mural dictates the kind of items to be included. Specific information is necessary for general background—the people and how they were dressed, the buildings, the vegetation, animals. The children's varied ideas should be accumulated before decisions are made on mural content.

Organizing content

After many possibilities have been discussed, children should be guided in selecting the major items to be included in the mural. Listing on the blackboard or a chart the people, things, incidents to be shown helps clarify plans. The list can be revised when need arises. The relative importance of items should be discussed, as well as the sequence of events—which things come first and in what order others follow.

The media

Media for murals should be chosen to fit the needs and abilities of the children. Murals may be done with chalk, tempera paint, crayon, cut or torn paper. The first two media are especially effective for large scale effects. If crayon is used, children must be encouraged to work with broad strokes, using the flat of the crayon. When an unfamiliar medium is to be used, some preliminary experimentation will free children of anxiety about the process. A "pin-on" mural (in which individual efforts are stapled, pinned, or pasted on a background) usually involves contributions of many children. Deciding who is to make what is an essential part of the planning.

The size

Room location for display of the mural often determines size. Long, narrow areas are best adapted to sequential-type murals—about two feet wide and as long as needed or as display space affords. Butcher or kraft paper is strong enough to be handled and takes art media effectively. Shelf paper can also be used.

Art principles

Although expression of ideas is the key consideration, how these ideas are expressed involves basic art learnings. Questions that arise frequently have direct bearing on art principles. For example:

HOW SHALL IDEAS BE ARRANGED? (Composition.) A pin-on mural is a practical means of learning something about composi-



Boats and S

tion. "How can we place the cut-out trees so they are in front of the house?" "How can we place cars in our street so they seem to be passing each other?" The pin-on mural permits experiments with many arrangements before the final pinning or pasting. The mural needs one element to give it continuity and tie it together—a fence, a railroad track, a street in the foreground, sky or mountains in the background.

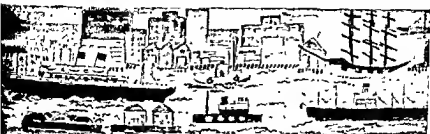
WHAT COLORS? (Color study.) Color helps express ideas and feelings.

HOW CAN IDEAS ABOUT HOW THINGS LOOKED BE OBTAINED? (Visualization of form.) Accuracy in specific items may be derived from frequent consultation with pictures. For example, comparison and selection of details in many pictures of covered wagons may provide a sketching guide for the covered wagons in the mural.

Planning for Work

Except for pin-on murals in which a whole class may be involved, the number of children who are to work on a mural at one time will depend on the work space available. It is essential that those who had the job of finding out plan and execute the mural to express what they found out.

Decisions will be required for specific responsibilities and for procedures. For example, "Shall we draw directly on the mural with paint or another medium, or should we outline in chalk first?" Primary children like to paint directly on the mural. Intermediate and upper grade children usually do some sketch-



Our Harbor.

ing in chalk first. The place to work must be determined. Murals require work space with the paper on the wall, on the window counter, or on the floor. Newspaper in back or under it helps children work freely and keeps walls, floor, or counter free of smears. A well-chosen title and captions add finishing touches.

Working

Work on the mural may entail a good part of several social studies periods. If children plan for what is to be accomplished, by whom, and with what materials before they begin, the work period is usually a good one. Following each work period, an evaluation of progress is made. This evaluation may raise questions concerning content. Any uncertainty or disagreement should be a basis for more extensive research. Questions such as, "Were the covered wagons pulled by oxen or by horses?" provide good reasons for further research, reporting, discussing, and deciding on the part of the children. It is up to the teacher to demonstrate the need for taking time out occasionally to seek further information in the interests of the accurate factual content of the mural. The entire class should share in the evaluation each day as the mural progresses even though only a small group is actually working on it. This evaluation serves as a unifier of the working groups thus enabling the whole class to know what the separate committees are doing. At the same time, this evaluation process helps gain information from others and strengthens the feeling of individual responsibility to group accomplishment. Evaluation should be concerned with ways of working as well as with what is accomplished.



Tapping A Rubber Tree In Brazil



Panning For Diamonds In Venezuela

PEOPLE AT WORK IN SOUTH AMERICAN COUNTRIES. Producing a mural or a series of pictures in social studies requires accurate information and careful organization of ideas. Planning what will be included or omitted requires full discussion of factual information available as a basis for decisions.



Picking Coffee Beans In Brazil



Planting Corn In Bolivia

Dioramas

Dioramas are scenes built with a background for constructed figures and objects. Since they are three-dimensional, they are effective means of representing a scene or episode. Construction of the figures and objects, as well as the background for them, appeals to children. Plans for making the diorama must be developed with the children, utilizing many of the mural techniques. The scene or episode to be shown is, of course, the first consideration. Room facilities and available display space must also be considered. A long counter top is a good setting for a large diorama. Teachers may find that a series of several related dioramas involves more children, requires more planning and research, and is easier to "maneuver" in a busy classroom. One fifth grade class of forty, for example, involved in a study of industries of the United States collected discarded, equally proportioned cardboard boxes; in these they developed a series of ten scenes showing some of the leading agricultural, mining, and manufacturing industries of the United States. The research involved in selecting these industries, in finding out about each, and the painstaking care with which each small group developed their particular diorama resulted in an effective and satisfying display. The children were more than ready with statistics, data, information for anyone who raised questions related to the industries the dioramas depicted. Although the emphasis was on helping children develop a way of thinking and behaving, the teacher also gave specific art help as it was needed.

In making dioramas (once the desire to do so has been established) four practical considerations assume importance:

Plan what the scene is to show: a colonial kitchen, a Mexican market place, a Hopi village, and so on. Exactly what is to be in the scene must be determined.

Decide on the background: a counter or table beneath a pinning board with an appropriate scene for the backdrop on curved or straight cardboard with side and top removed; a cardboard box—large enough to accommodate figures and objects planned but small enough to be manageable; paper to fit three sides and the bottom on which to paint scenes for flat backdrop; papier mâché, crumpled paper, salt and flour mixture, to give dimensional effect.

Paint and construct the scenery: trees cut out of colored paper or crumpled paper or sponge on sticks; buildings of paper, cardboard, corrugated cardboard, blocks, or wood.

Construct and place figures: people from clothespins, pipe cleaners (built up with paper strips and paste), clay, picnic spoons, aluminum foil; animals, small size, from pipe cleaners; large size, newspaper base plus pasted strips of paper, painted with poster paint.

Puppets

Making puppets is an activity adaptable to almost any social studies unit. Simple puppet forms are especially useful in that emphasis can be placed on their use. Consideration of the ideas to be dramatized and the puppet characters precedes making puppets, and laborious art processes may detract from the content to be dramatized. Children should be instructed in the puppet-making processes, some of which are described in the photographs here.

Pictures

Young children like to draw or paint pictures to express their ideas and feelings, and easels and poster paints should be provided to use freely in depicting ideas related to social content. But, this free expression should be shared and should at times, meet the expectations of others. Young children are usually not able to work on group enterprises except through sharing individual contributions. Sharing may be the informal "show and tell," or it may involve display, with appropriate captions for all to see, compilations for the library table or for binding into a booklet.

Older children are able to work together on murals, dioramas, and other group enterprises involving art expression. Individual contributions, too, can be directed toward organized effort. For example, a booklet about Colonial Homes represented, in one class, carefully divided responsibilities for depicting and telling about Kinds of Houses, Building Tools and Materials, and Furnishings.

The quality of art expression depends on the quality of ex-



PUPPETS. (1) Cut-out figures tacked at the top of a yardstick. (2) Fold newspapers or sheets from "slick" magazines as indicated and "dress" fold-dolls according to character. These fold-dolls are suspended from above, rather than held aloft. (3) Crumple newspaper in a ball. Mount on stiff paper, paper or cardboard tube, big enough for finger. Cover with strips of paper (paper towels or newspaper) dipped in wheat paste. When dry, paint face, add hair, and appropriate costume.

PUPPETS (continued). (4) Paper bags with "faces" drawn on them. Add hats, curls, or other distinctive features. The bag may be opened or remain partly folded, with the puppeteer's hand inserted inside bag. (5) Paper bags with the upper part stuffed. Tie string at "neck." Paint face and costume. Add hair—jam, paper "curls," and so on. Add arms—paper spoons.





PUPPETS (continued). (6) Step 1: Coat a light bulb with vaseline. Cover with torn strips of newspaper dipped in wheat paste. Allow time for the covered bulb to dry. Step 2: With a sharp knife, cut the papier-mâché shell in two parts and remove bulb. Using paper strips, put two parts of shell together. Step 3: Shape features from additional bits of paper dipped in wheat paste. Step 4: Paint features. The head may be given a coat of shellac. Step 5: End result: engineer and bus driver puppets. These puppets are from a transportation series made by children, who in turn used them with information they gathered and organized about transportation in their city.

perience that provides the drive to express. Copying pictures instead of creating one's own results as much from paucity of experience as from lack of art skills. The teacher's main task is to provide experiences to form a reservoir of inspiration for pictorial expression, as well as to offer encouragement and help as needed.

Art and Social Studies

Although social studies depends heavily on art experiences as a means of using and organizing information, it does not presume to encompass the whole art program in the elementary school—fanciful, imaginative art expression should also be part of the program. Art is used in social studies as a visual means of organizing and expressing ideas related to factual information; it is usually related to some group enterprise so that others are involved in evaluating it. These procedures usually involve individual creative effort but should not detract from the more personal, imaginative art expression.

One has sympathy for the third grade boy who earned the ire of his companions when, having assumed responsibility for constructing a Coast Guard cutter for use in dramatic play, he proceeded, quickly and happily, to paint his cutter a beautiful, bright cerise. Forceful reminders from his companions indicated that everyone expected his boat to be like the light gray Coast Guard cutter seen in the harbor. Although recognizing that for purposes of social studies learnings—including responsibility to his group—reality demanded a gray Coast Guard cutter, an observer might hope that under other conditions, the boy could paint cerise ships and boats and other things for the sheer joy of working with intense color.

Industrial Arts in Social Studies

Industrial arts activities provide opportunities for children to gain manipulative experience as well as understanding of modern industrial processes. They can gain experience with the materials, tools, and processes as they learn how man changes raw materials in his environment to meet his needs.

Construction with Blocks

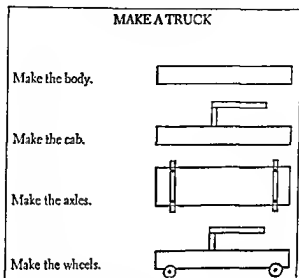
Large building blocks, adaptable to many uses, fulfill useful construction purposes in the primary grades. Buildings and equipment can be readily assembled and then can be removed to free space for other activities during the rest of the school day. They can be used over and over again for a variety of purposes. Sometimes children use a combination of block construction and things constructed with saw, hammer, and nails.

Construction with Wood and Tools

Wood and tool construction can be used to extend social studies learnings. Children in the primary grades use block construction for objects needed for on-going dramatic play. Early play in the airport may require only a runway. Later, planes, control tower, shops, passenger waiting rooms, ticket offices may be needed, and their construction may involve use of tools and building material. Cooperation is called for as "helpers" share in planning, making, and using the constructed items.

Don's White's first grade, for example, had many "truck experiences"—seeing, talking about, painting and comparing—before the idea of constructing a truck was broached. Opportunities for problem solving arise as young children use construction to match their concepts of reality. How are the wheels fastened on a truck? How does a truck hook on its trailer? Where should we put the gas station? Questions such as these require careful checking through observation, reading, discussion before children are satisfied. The construction itself may appear crude to the adult, but children are satisfied as long as their construction can be put to use.

Discussions in Miss White's class resulted in a simple plan developed by the children, and the trucks were considered highly successful by their makers. They were sturdy and could take hard use. They were made of wood. They "moved"—that is, the wheels turned as the trucks were used in play. They were simple to construct. The truck plan lent itself to all kinds of variations—some became tank trucks, some stake trucks; others became panel trucks or trucks and trailers.



NOTE: Materials needed:

Saw, hammer, nails, paint, boards 1" x 6" for body and cab.

1" x 1" for axles.

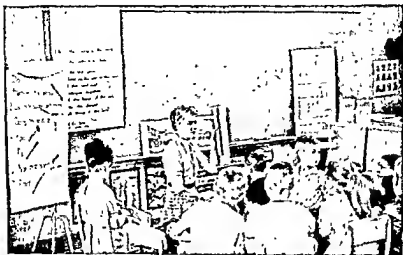
3" rounds or button molds for truck wheels.

Children can complete these as stake trucks, tank trucks, and other kinds of trucks.

For young children, use is the major goal of construction. Older children become interested in construction as a process and in making constructed items match reality as closely as possible. For the fifth grader, a long stick is not a pioneer rifle until it has been shaped to look the part. Middle and upper grade children can plan their construction for later use: a puppet stage may be built for use in a puppet play to be presented at the close of the unit; settings for dramatic play or stage sets may be designed. In upper grades small scale model construction may be made as a preliminary step to larger construction.

Planning for construction

Construction of all kinds requires special teacher guidance. It requires careful planning and evaluation. It requires a recognition of the need of specific constructions for dramatic play or





USING CONSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES. (1) Planning precedes working with tools and materials. (2) Construction requires a place to work and the right tools to use. (3) Discussing accomplishments and problems is an important part of the construction period.

for other purposes. (Evaluation for young children usually precedes clean-up time so that in discussing problems arising from construction, the "evidence is at hand.") It requires tools, lumber, and other materials and room to work—indoors or out. The following listing offers some suggestions for planning the construction period and recommended tools:

PRELIMINARY TEACHER PREPARATION

1. Cut lumber in four or five foot lengths (it's easier for children to handle).
2. Have ready in the room all necessary tools, lumber, and nails.
3. Designate a place for tools: a cupboard or cabinet on casters.
4. Cut sandpaper in quarters, with wooden blocks cut to fit. Nail or tack sandpaper on blocks; a dozen or so sandpaper blocks should be made and ready for use. A box or place to store them is necessary.
5. Think through all safety factors. Arrange physical factors safely and plan to discuss safe use of tools with children.

PLANNING WITH CHILDREN

1. Plan to use a bell, triangle, gong, or piano to gain attention during construction.
2. Help each child decide before the construction period what he is going to make, its relative size. (In the case of freight cars, for example, decide the length of the base, its width and thickness.) All children should have a plan for work. List what each child is going to make on the blackboard or on a chart.
3. Take notes during the construction period: materials needed, special problems, special accomplishments, and so on.
4. Plan the construction period in four parts:
Planning period—from 5 to 10 minutes;
Work period—from 25 to 40 minutes;
Clean-up period—about 5 minutes;
Evaluation period—from 5 to 15 minutes.

THE FIRST CONSTRUCTION PERIOD

1. Show the children the tools, giving names of all tools. Explain and demonstrate the use of those tools that will be used first—clamp, crosscut saw (others to be demonstrated as need

arises). Discuss proper way of sawing, as starting, finishing. Discuss need of drawing straight lines for sawing using mitre box.

2. Have sawhorses out and arranged for the first work period. Discuss their use. Arrange for two people at each and for tools to be placed under sawhorses when not in use.
3. Dismiss a few people at a time to find lumber, tools, and a place to work.

MINIMUM TOOLS FOR CONSTRUCTION

- 8-10 hammers, 13 oz. flatface
- 6-8 crosscut saws, 18" blade, 10 pts.
- 2 keyhole saws
- 3 coping saws and blades
- 6 wooden mitre boxes
- 2 wooden files, half round, 8" long
- 3 wood rasps, flat, 8" long
- 1 file card
- 10-12 "C" clamps
- 2 ratchet bit braces 6" sweep
- 4 auger bits, 1, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch
- 2 screwdrivers, 4" blade
- 6 tri-squares, 6"
- 10 rulers
- 6-12 sawhorses¹

Using Industrial Processes

One of man's major accomplishments is his development of processes through which raw materials are converted into a variety of products. In this country within the past century, the processing of materials has become such a specialized procedure that many of the goods and services used are taken for granted, with little understanding of the process through which they became usable. The first grader calls attention to her new dress and, on being asked where it came from, replies "My Mommy got it at Sears." Later experiences with handling wool in a study of a handcraft culture such as Colonial Life, Navajo Indians, Mexican Village Life may provide opportunity for chil-

¹ Adapted from material prepared by Mary Margaret Seobey, San Francisco State College.

dren to learn how people processed material with hand tools. The twisting of fiber into thread (spinning) and putting thread together (weaving) are understood when the simple tools are duplicated and used. Stacked loaves of bread take on new significance to children who have gone through the process of setting the dough for bread, kneading, baking it—and eating it fresh from the oven. The industrialized version of bread making that may be seen in a visit to a nearby bakery then takes on more meaning. Many units of work offer children opportunity to try out hand processes that were forerunners of the industrialized processes now in use. Some of the activities through which children may discover the processes used by man in meeting his needs are listed:

Some processes used in meeting basic needs:

I. food

Grinding wheat and corn.

Making hominy.

Preparing parched corn.

Experimenting with wild seeds for meals.

Canning, drying, freezing: fruits, meats, cereals, vegetables.

Making butter, cheese, ice cream.

Making rennet.

Extracting casein.

Beverage processes for cacao, tea, milk, carbonated drinks, coffee.

Constructing a coffee mill.

Processing sugar cane, maple sugar, sorghum, sugar beets, honey.

Primitive foods: kinds and preparation of berries, fruits, nuts, vegetables, meats.

Boiling water with hot rocks.

Cooking meat out of doors; making jerky, smoking fish; making pemmican.

Grinding and cooking Indian acorn mush.

Preparing piki.

Cooking typical dishes: Mexican tortillas, Kim Chee.

Comparison of historical and modern food processes.

Using package mixes, preparation of yeast, "starter."

Making salt.

Preparation of food utensils.

- Finding, gathering, preparing, and mixing clay.
- Using various methods of modeling clay.
- Use of glazes and firing; study of modern pottery processes.
- Fashioning copper bowls.
- Weaving baskets, mats, preparing reeds and grasses.
- Preparing gourd utensils.
- Carving wooden trenchers, spoons.

II. CLOTHING

- Wool: shearing, washing, picking, carding, spinning, dyeing.
- Experimenting with burning test for wool.
- Cotton: seeding, carding, spinning, dyeing.
- Making a cotton gin.
- Making cottonseed oil.
- Flax: harvesting, rippling, retting, scutching, hackling, spinning, dyeing.
- Making tools for these processes.
- Making linseed oil.
- Silk: care of silk worms, unwinding cocoons.
- Testing for silk.
- Weaving: building simple looms.
- Arranging designs.
- Comparing historical and cultural looms.
- Constructing a rug loom, box loom, scrimshaw looms, and so on.
- Making charts of kinds of textiles.
- Spinning on flax and wool spinning wheels.
- Studying and comparing historical and cultural spindles.
- Dyeing with natural and commercial dyes.
- Sewing: creating patterns.
- Fashioning bone needles.
- Sewing with leather thongs.
- Tanning leather, tawed leather, chamois.
- Making moccasins.
- Making soap.
- Making rubber and rubber products.

III. SHELTER

- Making models of historical and cultural shelters:

Adobe houses	Log cabins
Hogans	Sod houses

Making buildings of apple and orange boxes and other materials.

Historical method of construction: lashing.

Creating primitive tools.

Carving.

Making bricks, adobe bricks, concrete blocks.

Experimenting with mixing and use of concrete.

Making quicklime and mortar.

Knowledge of kinds of woods and their uses.

Exhibiting or using various kinds of materials used for shelter.

Determining components and use of paint.

Distilling turpentine.

Dipping and molding candles.

Fashioning betty lamps, clay lamps, others.

Making glass.

Riving shingles.

IV. TRANSPORTATION AND POWER

Construction of basic transportation models, historical and modern.

Trucks, boats, airplanes, trains, wagons, carts.

Constructing water wheel, windmill.

Experimenting with principles of heavier- and lighter-than-air.

Making an electromagnet motor.

Constructing a simple pump.

Experimenting with metal casting.

V. COMMUNICATION

Preparing paper, parchment, papyrus.

Making clay tablets, waxed tablets, birch bark records, carving in sandstone.

Fashioning quill pens, styluses.

Making ink.

Bookbinding.

Preparing a telegraph set.

Making tin can telephones.

Making primitive musical instruments: rattles, drums, pipes, whistles, stringed instruments.²

² *Ibid.*

Authenticity in Processing

Making adobe bricks, notching logs for a cabin, thatching a roof—these and many other processing activities appeal to children. Their greatest value, however, lies in developing appreciation of ways that needs were met in other times or places and understanding of modern technological processes. Authenticity of the processing procedures needs consideration. It is not always possible or desirable to duplicate exact processes. For example, candle making (by dipping or molding) may utilize a shortcut to the rendering of tallow by using paraffin; the soap makers may use "store bought" lye instead of leaching their own from wood ashes. The important point is that children know at which points their processing of materials is at variance with the original process. The wall outlining a Mexican village house may be made of painted cardboard boxes—so long as children recognize the boxes as "pretend" for play purposes—so long as they have experimented with the adobe process in making small scale bricks.

Summary

Various art experiences provide opportunities for children to organize ideas around a central purpose. In making murals, dioramas, picture collections, booklets they must select and organize ideas to fit the chosen visual presentation. The use of construction and industrial processes serve to clarify and extend ideas. The process of planning, deciding, evaluating involved in the use of art media is its most important contribution to social studies. Teachers, therefore, focus on the guidance of the process, knowing that the product is of less importance except as it gives satisfaction to the children involved.

For Further Study

The richness of ideas in social studies should be matched by use of a wide variety of ways of expressing them.

1. Examine units of work for the art experiences that are included. Assess the group planning, the art materials and techniques, and the information needed to carry them out.

2. Suggest several art and construction activities that might be appropriate for your unit. Experiment with one and show the results to your co-workers with comments as to procedural "do's and don'ts" discovered in the process. Analyze the learnings that might accrue to children from the activity used.

3. List several activities using industrial processes that may be possible within the unit of your choice, and suggest the learnings that may be established through each. Plan ways to help children understand any differences between the classroom process and the "real-life" process, if any.

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2. Construction and processing activities.

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10

Making Maps, Charts, and Graphs

Some art experiences, such as those discussed in the preceding chapter, rely heavily on children's creativity in presenting ideas in visual or tangible form. Other art experiences rely on the use of visual symbols, such as those in maps, charts, and graphs.

Making Maps

Maps made by children furnish an important means through which ideas are organized and used, strengthen map-reading skills (as discussed in Chapter 7), and emphasize their use as sources of information.

Learnings in Map-Making

First experiences in map-making are designed to develop readiness for map-reading and usually consist of constructing or drawing picture maps to depict things seen.

MAPS REPRESENT REAL THINGS. Before map symbols have much meaning for them, children need experience in many kinds of representation. Blocks, boxes, cardboard boxes can, for example, represent buildings. Picture symbols, too, show real things: chalk lines on the floor show runways, streets. Because

symbols have meaning for children only if the thing represented is known to them, representations on floor maps should come from direct experience. Making picture maps also helps develop map-reading readiness—a necessary step toward the idea that symbols represent real things. The following are some of the many opportunities for first map-making experiences in the primary grades:

“Map” of our store, our playhouse, etc.

Map of neighborhood around school.

Map of roads and important areas in our neighborhood.

Map of our field trip.

Map of our neighborhood showing where each child lives.

Sandtable or “dirt map” of our neighborhood.

Picture map of our neighborhood.¹

MAPS SHOW THINGS SMALLER THAN THEY REALLY ARE. In first map experiences, children are aware of relative size of things—hangars, planes, runways—a preliminary step to understanding scale later on.

MAPS USE DIRECTION. Constructing on the floor (a playhouse, a store) helps children relate real things to symbols. If the constructing represents a real thing seen or visited, some attention can be given to direction. For example, in which direction did the runways at the airport run? “How can we place the runways in the airport constructed in our classroom so that the direction of the runways is accurate?” Floor maps help to relate map and compass direction and overcome the erroneous concept that “north” is synonymous with “up” or “south” is synonymous with “down.”

Map-Making Experiences

In addition to the floor maps mentioned above, children need experience with a variety of ways of making maps as they progress through the elementary grades.

Picture maps

Pictures showing where things are in relation to each other are frequently a beginning map experience. As children attempt to show pictorially the position, size, and relationship of things

¹ Adapted from *Social Studies Workshop Report* (mimeographed), San Francisco State College, July, 1957, p. 16.

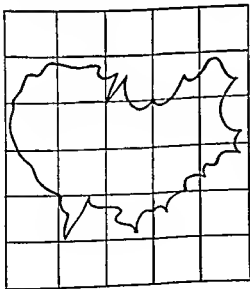
they know about, they are in effect mapping their world. Drawing helps children see how the world they know (or sometimes imagine) can be shown on a flat surface—a beginning step in visualizing meanings.

Flat maps

In the intermediate grades, the use of maps for visualizing information may take many forms besides the constructed and picture maps of the primary grades. There is increasing attention to accuracy in scale and to the use of symbols. Flat maps may be reproduced and enlarged by using the opaque projector or by using slides. More important, children can be taught to enlarge maps to scale: The map to be enlarged is traced. The paper is then marked in squares. A large sheet of paper is marked with the same number of squares—the small squares of the traced map serving as a guide to developing the larger map.

This method of map enlarging has several learning dividends:

1. It stresses the exactness of map-making—a map isn't just "drawn."
2. It helps focus on the unique map outline features.



3. It requires no special equipment, once the process is learned.

4. It teaches proportion.

Except for the sketch maps sometimes used to illustrate a point (usually drawn on blackboards and then erased), maps should be made as accurately as possible. The graphing method described develops a feeling of accuracy.

A map is of little value unless it has a title and a legend explaining the various symbols used. The symbols should be those of common usage. Teaching map symbols as they are needed and stressing the importance of an accurate map legend as children develop maps of their own, leads to facility in understanding printed maps.

From the standpoint of developing map skills, making a series of maps each showing one thing is usually preferable to developing one map that attempts to include many factors. From a practical consideration, a series of fifteen maps depicting fifteen different kinds of information could involve the whole class in map-making with its attendant research. A more important consideration is that a series of fifteen different maps provides a limitless opportunity for showing relationships of different geographic factors. For example, in Miss Altes's sixth grade class, committees (two or three students) developed a series of fifteen maps of South America. The maps were enlarged by the graphing process to an agreed upon size of two by three feet. Each map told a different story—population, elevation, rainfall, temperature, major agricultural products, mineral products, railroad, highway, and airway routes. As these were displayed, relationships became apparent. For example, when the rainfall and population maps were placed side by side, students could draw probable generalizations concerning relationship of these factors. When the railroad map was placed next to the elevation map, other relationships became evident. Thus, an important but often overlooked map skill was stressed as the students learned to use maps to examine relationships between specific geographic and human factors.

Overlay maps

In helping children use maps as a way of seeing interrelationships, a basic map with a series of transparent overlays of

the same size is effective. If the basic map shows elevation and natural features, a series of overlay maps showing rainfall, population, types of vegetation provides a dramatic means of reaching some cause and effect generalizations. Plastic acetate is a transparent material suitable for this use. Marking materials are available for use with it.

Relief maps

An appealing activity for children is developing maps with some feeling of elevations. Salt and flour, papier-mâché, sawdust and wheat paste, powdered asbestos can be effectively used. A feeling of accurate representation (although every relief map is an exaggeration) should be stressed. Preliminary steps in the making of relief maps include the following:

1. Determine the size of the map to be made and get a piece of plywood for the base. Relief maps should be large; otherwise, it is difficult to show relative differences in elevation.

2. Using the graph method, make two maps—one on the plywood and one on butcher paper of the same size. It is important to have the butcher paper map as a reference during construction of the relief map.

3. Using the map from which the enlargement was made as a guide, show the relief features on the butcher paper map. The squares used in enlarging should remain visible as an aid in comparison with the map on the plywood.

4. Cover the plywood map with a thin layer of the chosen material. Using the butcher paper map as a reference, place toothpicks to show elevated areas—half a toothpick to show 1,000–5,000 feet elevations and a whole toothpick to show over 5,000 feet. Let this first layer dry. Then build the map by covering the toothpick areas to the half-toothpick level. When that layer has dried, add the third layer to cover the whole toothpick. The use of the butcher paper map as a reference and the use of half and whole toothpicks (or brads of two sizes) eliminates much guesswork. Although the resulting relief map may be lacking in accurate detail, children will have acquired some knowledge of scale and some of the feeling for accuracy in representation that is an essential part of map study. It is a good idea to choose a map for reference that uses the standard scale for elevation to give children practice with the elevation key they are most likely to use in the future.

Density of Population.

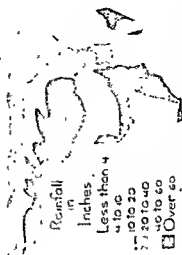
Africa



Scale 250 miles to the inch

Principal Rivers and Lakes

Africa

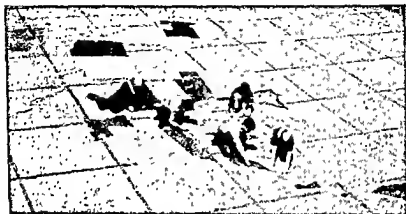


Scale 250 miles to the inch

Mean Annual Rainfall

MAKING MAPS. The influence of geographic features on population may be assessed by placing the transparent population map over the maps.

5. Paint the map with poster paints or use two coats of clear varnish. The map may then be painted with water colors, which can be washed off, allowing the map to be used for many different purposes.



MAKING MAPS. The fifth grade makes an outdoor map to scale for the whole school to use.

Globes

Construction of a globe also has many learning rewards. Large balloons, such as discarded weather balloons, form a base for repeated layers of strip papier-mâché. When the globe is firm enough to handle, designation of the poles and lines of latitude and longitude form guides for placement of continents and other features in as much detail as necessary. The process (using a constructed base instead of the balloon) is shown in detail in the film "Our World."²

Charts and Graphs

Charts and graphs are a visual means of organizing and presenting information. Much informational material is presented for adult use in this manner. In fact, the amount of information to be presented to the adult population is causing newspapers, news magazines, reports, advertisements to use these

² "Our World," International Film Bureau

forms of factual presentation to an increasing extent. Because of their wide use, young people should know how to interpret charts and graphs. Facility in interpreting charts and graphs grows as they are used in a variety of situations. Children who are accustomed to presenting ideas in chart and graph form will not have difficulty in interpreting information presented in this way. Social studies provides numerous opportunities for using charts and graphs. For purposes of social studies, a chart is information presented in its most simplified form, usually for display to the whole class. A graph presents quantitative information in chart form.

Making Charts

Charts are useful learning activities throughout the elementary grades. They contribute to social studies by providing occasions for group discussion, planning, and action as ideas are organized and put into tangible form. They extend vocabulary and help integrate ideas and symbols.

Charts are used at all grade levels. In the primary grades, the chart content is dictated to the teacher who does the required printing. Middle and upper grade children use charts as a means of organizing and presenting information, using agreed upon standards of format and content. At both primary and later grade levels, charts help to counteract the overuse of verbal presentation of ideas by requiring thoughtful selection and organization of material. Some charts are for short term use and are printed with crayon on newspaper or butcher paper. Sometimes the blackboard is used for recording for temporary use. Charts for long term display are usually done with India Ink and a speedball pen on oak tag or butcher paper.

Charts are of many types, depending upon the purposes they serve. Some charts especially useful in social studies are the following:

Cooperative story charts

Primary children often want to record experiences they have had in common. Information gained from a field trip, from an experiment such as making butter, or from a resource visitor may be recorded. Sometimes a sequence of events such as "How Our Seeds Grew" may be recorded. The emphasis in cooperative story

charts is on accurate accounting of events in the most meaningful way. At the primary level, the teacher serves as recorder, handling the mechanics so that children may concentrate on ideas and meanings. Often the full value of an experience such as a field trip accrues as these "junior historians" select the most pertinent items, resolve inconsistencies in information gathered, and bridge gaps in understandings through sharing unique contributions of each child. Wise teachers emphasize this sharing, selecting, resolving process before actually recording "what we will say." Language power grows as attention is given to the best ways of recording particular ideas.

Picture and display charts

These can be used at any grade level. Pictures are organized under an appropriate caption such as (in a second grade unit on The Market) "Foods We Eat." Appropriate planning might lead to further refinement of this topic into a series of charts—"Frozen Foods," "Fresh Foods," "Refrigerated Foods," and so on. In a sixth grade study of Transportation, charts were developed with these captions: "Travel by Water—Yesterday," "Travel by Water—Today," "Travel by Land—Yesterday," "Travel by Land—Today," "Travel by Air—Yesterday," "Travel by Air—Today." This group added another chart titled "Travel—Tomorrow," keeping alert to the actual and imaginary plans for travel of the future. At any grade level, the real goal in developing charts is to help children select and reject, organize and reorganize factual content so that the resulting chart will reflect pertinent, accurate information. Sometimes, a bulletin board or display space with appropriate captions presents information in chart style.

Direction charts

Learning to follow printed directions is a necessary skill. Social studies helps develop this skill as children use direction charts such as these to carry out a planned activity: Recipe for Bread, Making Butter, How to Make a Truck.

Reference charts

Reference charts serve some of the same purposes as direction charts. They provide a quick reference for basic informa-

tion. For example, when children in the middle grades are producing their own captions, labels, charts, and titles and legends for maps, a letter guide chart in the room will insure printing in the accepted style. Reference charts such as outline forms for business letters or other specific directions are used.

Vocabulary charts

Vocabulary charts are one of the most useful chart forms. One measure of children's understanding of any phase of social studies is their facility in handling its vocabulary. A growing list of "new words" related to any area of study helps children recognize their own development. Vocabulary charts listing key words relating to the unit provides one means of helping children extend concepts. For example, this vocabulary chart, developed by a third grade during the progress of a unit on Transportation represents many new understandings.

SHIP WORDS		
port	bridge	hold
starboard	bow	hatches
galley	stem	funnel
engine	mast	deck

As new words are met and used they are added to the chart. It is a growing list in which each added word represents a new concept. The word itself is sufficient—definitions are not appended for two reasons: First, each person states his definition in his own way rather than memorizing a stated specific definition. Second, understanding the meaning of the word has preceded putting the word on the list.

Comparison charts

Noting likenesses and differences is one good means of clarifying concepts, and such comparisons can often be stated in

simplified terms in chart form. For example, children beginning to understand the way people lived in one period of life in California started this chart:

HAVING FUN IN CALIFORNIA	
1800's	1950's
rodeo	football game
fiesta	picnic
visiting	movies and TV

Record charts

Charts can help record accomplishments and recurring events. For example, a fifth grade class tried to think of all the ways they might gain information needed in their study of the United States and Its Products, and made a chart listing all the resources for information at their disposal. Their list included reading books, reading current materials, interviewing people, seeing films, taking study trips. After starting their study, they recorded by date the times when each of these resources was specifically used. They found that two items should be added to their chart: using statistical data and watching TV. This recording by chart helped these children become aware of the range of data available when information is needed.

Planning charts

Charts of this type help organize ideas and ways of working. They record for future reference plans made by the class. Charts titled "Our Work Plans," "We Want to Know," "Things to Find Out" (referring to a study trip), and "Social Studies Committees" clarify agreed upon plans and responsibilities for all concerned. They are, of course, useful only to the degree to which the whole group is involved in formulating and agreeing upon the plans charted. And, of course, they may be used as referral charts as long as necessary.

Standard charts

Standard charts are similar to planning charts in that they outline a course of action. They are focused on helping children formulate rules for themselves. They provide a good means of developing desirable group behavior. As with the planning charts, they are of value only when they result from group decision. Often this group decision results from dissatisfactions felt by the children. For example, a fifth grade class new to a committee type of procedure had difficulties staying with delegated jobs. After an especially noisy work period and notable low accomplishment level, the teacher helped children focus their attention on the satisfactions and dissatisfactions they had felt during this work period. Their discussion proceeded something like this:

Committee chairman of the map, mural, and booklet committees reported on what they accomplished. It was obvious that they each could report some accomplishment, although it was equally obvious that actual accomplishment was minimal and involved too few children—the rest were wandering, visiting, “fooling around.” After these perfunctory reports, the discussion continued:

Teacher: “Do you think we accomplished as much as we wanted to this period?”

Individual comments were divided between attempts to justify accomplishment and some real dissatisfactions such as: “Well, we’re ready to put the papier-mâché on our map.” “I started my report. . . .” “We spent almost the whole time arguing about the background for the mural and we still don’t know.”

The teacher helped the children toward an honest acceptance that they had operated at a low level of achievement. He said, “Does it seem to you that maybe we need to think about the way we worked today—and why we didn’t get more done?”

This brought out a rash of comments, many of them “spoken from the heart”:

“I had my report on Sutter started and Jules bumped my desk and that messed up my paper.”

“Tommy was supposed to help us decide about the mural, but he just messed around the whole time.”

After several similar comments, the teacher again gave focus to the discussion, guiding toward ways of working by suggesting that they talk about things that went wrong—not about people. He then directed their comments toward suggestions for better ways of working. This move from “complaining” to analyzing difficulties and suggesting remedies caused a lull in the discussion. After a still moment, one girl volunteered her idea that everyone should be quiet and not talk—the old standard remedy in so many classrooms! No doubt this suggestion resulted more from guessing what “teacher” might want than from thoughtful analysis. The teacher wisely countered this by saying, “Don’t you think we should do some talking when we work in committees?” After a brief thoughtful moment, the real analysis began. The suggestions these children made for themselves stemmed from the difficulties they had commented on earlier and finally resulted in a set of “rules” entirely consistent with their own expressed difficulties. As a result of this discussion, their chart entitled “Work Rules” was posted the next day and was referred to often. It listed these five rules:

1. Keep your voices down when you talk.
2. Go to your committee’s work space.
3. Do not visit other committees.
4. If you finish your job, see your committee chairman.
5. Booklet committee, use the row of desks near the windows. Others, stay away.

It is perfectly obvious that these “rules” were unique to this class; they were developed to overcome specific, stated difficulties. They were not ambiguous, and they became a means of honest assessment for this class as each day they took stock of “How are we working?”

In an analysis of the guidance offered by the teacher, several suggestions for developing and using standard charts seem clear:

Ways of working are often as important as tangible results. Children should develop the ability to analyze results and their causes honestly.

Rules can help to correct specific difficulties. This teacher began with an analysis of difficulties—a “gripping” session.

An analysis of difficulties must focus on procedures that need improving—not people who need correcting. It is easier to blame a person than to analyze procedures and requires no group effort to improve.

Rules should correct clearly defined difficulties—not state unattainable hopes. This teacher avoided general statements for improvement of procedures in favor of specific statements directed toward stated difficulties.

Rules clearly stated give us a base for action and evaluation of action.

Rules reconcile teacher and student viewpoints.

The teacher was concerned with improving behavior in ways that would provide a basis for self-discipline (individual and group)—one of the goals of social studies. At the same time, developing acceptable patterns of behavior is one of the crucial issues in success of a modern social studies program. In the classroom situation described above, several courses of action were open to the teacher. He could have stopped much of the "fooling around" by intervening directly. He could have taken direct action by stating the conditions under which children could operate. By providing the kind of guidance he did, he forced children to acknowledge responsibility for and direction of their own actions—a necessary learning for citizens in a democracy, and one that its young citizens should experience over and over again.

Standard charts can be developed for many situations, a few of which follow:

Making a Report

Making Announcements

Discussion Rules

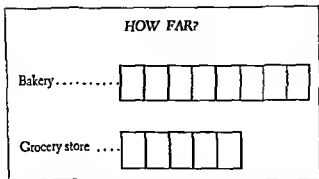
Clean-Up Rules

Using Books

The standard chart, no matter for what specific situation it is developed, should serve as a clearly defined guide to action. It must be referred to frequently, and it must be redesigned as new standards for action are required.

Graphs

Graphs present information in quantitative form. Since they rely on symbols to express quantity, their use in the lower grades is limited. However, even in the primary grades it is desirable to have quantitative information shown in simplified form. For example, a second grade class compared distances on two "walking trips"—one to a bakery, the other to a grocery store—of the number of blocks they walked in each:



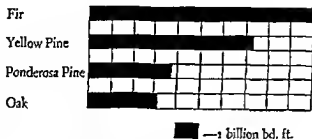
In the middle and upper grades, data from social studies content can be expressed in graph form. Facility in handling data grows as students develop graphs to relay pertinent information and as they devise ways to interpret findings in visual form.

Facility in using bar graphs, circle or "pie" graphs, and line graphs should be stressed. Samples of each of these three types of graphs developed by intermediate grade children are shown in the accompanying charts. Students who can present information in graph form are developing skill in handling quantitative data. At the same time, they are developing respect for accuracy of data. It is one thing to state that the United State imports much coffee. It is another thing to determine through the use of statistical data exactly how much and how this amount compares with two or three other important imports and to show this by a bar, circle, or picture graph.

Time Lines and Charts

An understanding of time and skill in interpreting it are among the most difficult of social studies learnings—probably because young children have so few experience referents to help them clarify meanings of terms relating to time. Even the space concepts dealt with in a previous section are less abstract. A child can see a street or a road—where it goes, how people use it. But, a six-year-old has not experienced enough "years" to understand the meaning of that term. While the construction of calendars, vocabulary charts, and time lines are helpful, their value is

SAMPLE OF BAR GRAPH*

LUMBER PRODUCTION IN U.S.—1956
Kinds of Wood

* Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1959.

SAMPLE OF CIRCLE GRAPH*

NATIONAL FORESTS IN U.S.

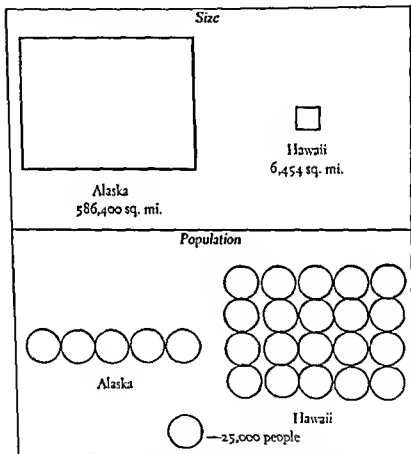


* Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1959.

limited unless other means of developing time concepts accompany them.

As with space concepts, time concepts should have their beginning in the primary grades. Later understanding of time and chronology is the result of a continuous cumulative process, which according to most research does not reach fruition until adolescence. A summary of available studies indicates that "some concept of past versus present is reached at about eight years, a full understanding of reckoning time at about eleven years,

SAMPLE OF PICTURE GRAPHS
COMPARING OUR TWO NEW STATES



understanding of time lines at about thirteen years, and something approaching maturity of understanding time words and dates at about sixteen years of age."³ To most teachers this cumulative process means providing experiences appropriate to the

³ David H. Russell, *Children's Thinking* (Boston: Cinn & Company, 1956), p. 234.

maturity level of children that further the sequence development from grade to grade.

Young children first learn to deal with time in relation to their own daily schedule. Thus, the five-year-old entering kindergarten for the first day wanted assurance that he was to be rescued by mother from this unknown situation. His mother assured him she would be back "at noon." This meant little to him; he asked for further assurance. His mother next said, "That's when both hands on the clock are straight up, together." This was still not enough assurance, so she said, "I'll be back in time for your lunch." Doubt still remained until she clarified it finally by referring to a favorite program, saying she would be back "when Happy comes on TV." Building time referents is an important process. It usually involves two factors:

Developing a time vocabulary

Discussion and planning of the classroom schedule introduces time designations—twelve o'clock, lunch time; two o'clock, time to go home. Reference to events of yesterday and today and those planned for tomorrow reveal day-to-day relationships. Categorizing happenings as of the past, proposed for the future, or happening now extends this concept of time. Words such as those listed below in reference to children's experiences are used often:

today	night	week
yesterday	o'clock	month
tomorrow	hour	year
morning	minutes	
noon	day	

In addition, days of the week, months of the year, names of common holidays become part of children's vocabulary. The commonly used time vocabulary helps call children's attention to these words and provides a basis for discussing their meanings. Planning and posting the daily schedule helps clarify words used to describe time. Older children can help plan and organize in chart form a long-range schedule of school events. Vocabulary charts also call attention to those time words with which children have dealt.

In later years, vocabulary relating to time takes on arith-

metrical meaning as more advanced terms such as decade, century, generation are used.

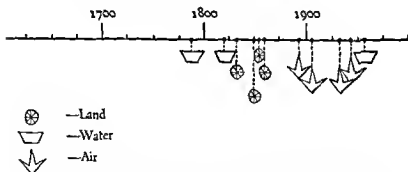
Developing arithmetical concepts of time

The clock and the calendar are common time referents in primary grades. Recognition of hand positions, of the time value of second, minute, hour, day develops through frequent use. The calendar indicates today, days when there is no school, birthdays, special days, and events. Primary teachers make and use the calendar, frequently letting individual children color squares, counting back later to see "how many days ago I colored the 'October 15' red."

Historical content dealt with by older children frequently involves specific dates. Memorizing dates is for most elementary children a waste of time. Specific dates are frequently devoid of meaning unless much care is taken to surround them with mean-

SAMPLE 1: TIME LINE*

Transportation Developments—Land, Water, Air



* As children found and discussed important developments, appropriate symbols were hung on the time line at the appropriate points. On the back of each symbol were identifying remarks:

Fitch Steamboat—1787

Erie Canal—1825

Steam trains—1831

"The Nautilus"—1904

The time line helped some children draw such generalizations as:

People used power to drive boats.

The railroads developed during the 19th century.

Air transportation is mostly a 20th century development.

The use of man-made power has developed mostly since 1800.

New kinds of power may change transportation in the future.

ing. A few "marker" dates are sufficient for most children and these should be infused with meaning of many sorts. For example, 1776 is an important date in American history. But, important things were happening in other places besides Philadelphia. Eventually, too, young people should be able to visualize the sweep of events that led to this point in history. Although research indicates that children are not ready to interpret time lines until the upper elementary grades, some teachers of the intermediate grades find that a class-made time line becomes a visual referent for any specific event discussed in much the same way that a map is used for reference. As an event in a story, on TV, in social studies is mentioned, it is located on the time line. It may actually be placed on the time line or merely located by pointing. Usually a verbal description is also given—such as, "Melissa is a story of a girl who lived about the time of the Revolutionary War. That would be about here on the time line, in the last part of the 1700's." Stories and TV events for which no dates are given provide an exercise in finding "clues" to date them much as the pioneer coin discussion did in Chapter 2. Time lines, such as those shown in charts here, are designed to

SAMPLE 2: TIME LINE*
Pocket Chart—What Happened?

1600	1650	1700	1750	1800	1850	1900	1950
Seventeenth Century		Eighteenth Century		Nineteenth Century		Twentieth Century	

* As children read or hear about important events, these are noted on cards and filed in appropriate pockets. Thus, a pocket may accumulate dates concerning historical events, discoveries, setting for a story and so on. For example, these dates in the latter half of the nineteenth century:

1882—Edison's first electric power plant.

Meg, Jo, Amy, and Beth ("Little Women") lived then in New England.

1876—First telephone.

1865—Lincoln's Gettysburg Address.

help children develop a time sense, as they place events in relative time sequence. The dates themselves are of little importance except as they make children aware of the relationship of time and events. Discussion—an opportunity to verbalize concepts about time—is also important in developing time sense.

Summary

Making maps, charts, and graphs calls for the presentation of factual information in visual forms. Presenting information in any of these ways requires command of requisite data and understanding of appropriate symbols. Extensive use of these forms of presenting information helps children interpret the many maps, charts, and graphs now commonly used in current materials. Thus, their use in social studies has double value, as children not only organize relevant information but, at the same time, gain skill in interpreting data so presented.

For Further Study

Making maps and graphs requires use and interpretation of factual data.

1. Examine current issues of newspapers and news magazines for five or six samples of graphs to determine what kinds seem to be in common use, what types of data are presented, and the conclusions you reach based on each.

2. Examine current materials for samples of maps. Which projections seem to be in common use?

3. List some map and graph experiences that would use data related to the unit you are developing. Analyze your suggested activities for their learning values to children. Produce a sample of each, and report to the rest of the group the satisfactions and dissatisfactions you encountered in developing them.

1. Making maps.

Greenhood, David. *Down to Earth Map-Making for Everybody*. New York: Holiday House, 1951. Chapter 8. Suggestions for the amateur map-maker and helpful hints to teachers.

Michaelis, John U. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (Second Edition). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1956. Chapter 11. Map-making: types, materials, procedures, and uses.

"Our World," International Film Bureau. This film shows children and their teacher in the step-by-step process of making a globe.

Preston, Ralph. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School* (Revised Edition). New York: Rinehart & Co., 1959. Pp. 290-291. Suggestions for making relief maps.

Sabaroff, Rose. "Map Making in the Primary Grades," *Social Education*, January, 1960, 19-20. Tangible, pictorial and semi-pictorial mapping as beginning steps in developing map skills.

2. Graphs, charts, diagrams, and time lines.

Ammons, Margaret P. and John I. Coodlad. "Time, Space, and the Developing Child," *Childhood Education*, April, 1956, 374-379. Time and space concepts "fall into place conceptually" as a part of social studies—not as abstract learnings.

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. New York: McCraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Pp. 242-347. Graphs, charts, diagrams, and their uses.

Brown, James W. et al. *A-V Instruction: Materials and Methods*. Pp. 347-348. Suggestions for making time lines.

Dale, Edgar. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (Revised Edition). New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1954. Pp. 323-334. Making and using diagrams, charts, and graphs.

Preston, Ralph. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School* (Revised Edition). New York: Rinehart & Co., 1959. Pp. 235-245. Development of time concepts and how charts and graphs sometimes help.

Wesley, Edgar B. and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Revised 1952. Pp. 301-306. Clear statement of what is involved in understanding time and chronology.

PART

4

The goals of social studies are complex, requiring careful evaluation procedures that consider the wide range of understandings and skills sought and that assess effectiveness of teacher planning as demonstrated in pupil accomplishment. Chapter 11 deals with some of these procedures.

Assessing Learning in the Social Studies

11

Evaluation in Social Studies

Throughout preceding chapters of this book, the role of the teacher in working with boys and girls in social studies has been a major emphasis. The teacher's beliefs about the role of education in American society, his conception of how social studies contributes to the educational program, his understanding of how children learn, and his skill in working with his group determine his behaviors as a teacher and the ultimate effectiveness of the educational program. As in all other professions, there is no limit to the opportunities for continual growth toward effective procedures. Teaching, like the whole field of the social sciences, is subject to change as new demands, new knowledge, and new insights develop.

The challenge of teaching is its requirement of high level professional judgment and skill. Its complex nature is indicated in the definition of teacher competence developed by the California Council on Teacher Education. Teacher roles were classified as follows:

TEACHER ROLES IN PROMOTING PUPIL GROWTH

Director of Learning.
Counselor and Guidance Worker.

LIAISON ROLES OF THE TEACHER

Mediator of the Culture.
Link with the Community.

PROGRAM-BUILDING ROLES

Member of the School Staff.
Member of the Profession.¹

Each of these roles is reflected in social studies.

The teacher directs learning and guides children as they deal with social studies, but his liaison role in relation to social studies is also important as he helps children extend their home and community experiences to a deeper understanding of human relationships. The teacher interprets the social studies program to parents and the community. In addition, he shares responsibility for improving the total social studies program. Evaluation is an essential ingredient in determining how effectively each of these roles is being fulfilled.

Evaluation and the Teacher

Although children, parents, and many others are involved in evaluating the outcomes of social studies, it is up to the teacher to plan evaluation procedures. Specific objectives determine the nature of the evaluation process. When teachers plan learning experiences to be used in teaching, they are themselves participating in problem-solving. A "plan" is the teacher's hypothesis that certain desired results will obtain from a given learning experience. The problem solving is not complete for the teacher until the planned experience is activated and evaluated. The close relationship of objective-learning experience-evaluation dictates evaluation procedures. The evaluation process is directed toward assessing the degree of progress toward a given goal resulting from a given procedure.

One difficulty faced by the classroom teacher in determining effectiveness of teaching procedures is that the long-term goals of the school (and of social studies) are difficult to assess in piecemeal fashion. For example, "good citizenship" is a desirable long-term goal. Yet, it is a goal for which teachers must plan specifically rather than a goal requiring only wishful thinking. Short-term goals that contribute to over-all objectives need to be

¹ Adapted from the Commission on Teacher Education, *Teacher Competence, Its Nature and Scope* (San Francisco, California Teachers Association, 1957), pp. 12-17.

defined. The goals, the procedures plotted to attain them, and the means of assessing results should be clearly related to each other.

Another area of concern is the difficulty in assessing outcomes for which objective measurement is not appropriate. It is a simple matter to find out in oral or written form whether or not children can associate the name "Columbus" with the date "1492." It is another matter to determine whether a child understands the difficulties of that trip or has deeper appreciation of his American heritage as a result of his study of this phase of history.

Evaluating in Terms of Objectives

Social studies objectives, like the goals of education itself, are complex and hence are neither attained nor assessed simply. A review of objectives suggested in Chapter 1 is a good beginning point from which to consider evaluation procedures for use in the classroom. Knowledge and understanding, attitudes, behaviors and skills were listed as the specific objectives of social studies. Procedures for evaluating growth in each of these areas need to be developed.

Assessing Growth in Knowledge and Understanding

A variety of evaluation tools are required in assessing growth in knowledge and understanding.

Children's discussions and comments

The teacher who listens in on children's discussions, conversations, and comments is using an effective assessment tool. Children often reveal depth of knowledge (or lack of it) in discussion and conversation. Opportunity for free expression of ideas not only helps children organize the information they have at hand; it can at the same time promote a measure of the understanding. Frequently, the meaning behind words is tested in discussion and children become aware of the need for clarification. The teacher can learn in the same process how effectively children are dealing with information.

Questions

Questioning has always been a much used teacher's assessment device. But, questioning can either hide or reveal children's understanding. Questioning that places premium on rote memory can fail to reveal the understanding (or lack of it) surrounding factual information. Yet, children feel a sense of accomplishment when they "know they know," and this is good. The teacher's assessment must go beyond this point. Questions that call on children to muster all the facts at their command should be used frequently in addition to those that call for verbatim answers. For example, "What have you found out about Rio de Janeiro?" calls for organization of all factual information a child may have on that subject in contrast to a question such as, "What is the largest city in Brazil?" Children must learn to select and reject information. "Quiz programs" based on the area under study often provide children with an opportunity to determine what questions cover the important information.

How children use information

Evidence of children's understanding can be observed in art, dramatization, and other activities in which they utilize information. The sixth graders' first act in their pantomime play, "How Man Learned to Travel by Water," left no doubt that these "actors" understood how a dugout was made, from the selection of the right size tree, through the burning out process, to the jubilant launching. Much of the teacher guidance in the activity phase of social studies is directed toward helping children test out understandings for themselves. This guidance implies continual assessment of understandings as children reveal the degree of meaning in their verbalizations. Dramatization and role playing of all kinds provide opportunities for assessing understanding as teachers observe children in these settings.

Understandings must eventually be verbalized. Because each child verbalizes what he understands in his own way, teachers must be ready to accept verbalized understandings stated in many ways and on different levels of abstraction.

Much of social studies takes place in group settings as children plan, discuss, and carry out their enterprises. But, the teacher is concerned with individuals within the group and seeks

ways of assessing and recording evidence of individual growth. Some system of recording on a systematic basis is a necessity, usually in the form of brief notes recorded at the time of observation and filed for later use by the teacher.

Tests

Tests measure factual information—an important ingredient of understandings. Since the specific factual content with which children reach understandings will vary in different classrooms, the most useful tests are those prepared by the teacher and based on relevant content. Objective tests are most frequently used. These include completion, multiple choice, and matching.

SAMPLE TEST ITEMS

COMPLETION—write in the answer.

1. The farms of Wisconsin produce _____.
2. Minnesota has valuable _____ mines.
3. _____ and _____ are called the "Twin Cities."

MULTIPLE CHOICE—Underline the right answer.

1. The farms of Wisconsin produce grain
cotton
dairy products
2. Minnesota has valuable iron mines
coal mines
oil deposits
3. An important harbor on
Lake Superior is Madison
Duluth
St. Paul

MATCHING—Directions: Match the place mentioned with its major product.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| _____ Milwaukee | 1. iron ore |
| _____ Detroit | 2. automobiles |
| _____ Hibbing | 3. rubber products |
| _____ Chicago | 4. farm machinery |
| _____ Akron | 5. meat packing |

True and false items and their variations are less helpful in determining children's command of factual information. In the middle and upper grades, children may share in test construction either by compiling a list of "important things we know" from which test items are developed or by constructing the test items themselves. In either case, children are helped to select important items rather than the trivial or bizarre. The process of selecting test items in itself provides the teacher with a measure of children's knowledge and understanding.

...Children gain increased appreciation of the reasons for testing, gain insight into the selection of key ideas, secure practice in analyzing material, and grow in the ability to express themselves with precision. By helping to make tests, children also clarify purposes and see some of the relationships between the program and testing.²

Children's writing

Written response to questions is another evaluative procedure, providing children have reached a stage of development in which the act of writing is not so great a burden that it inhibits expressing ideas. The stimulus for writing, if a true assessment of understanding is to result, should lead children to use their factual information creatively.

All of children's writing efforts in social studies reveals their understanding and knowledge in relation to the topic being studied. Stories, diaries, and creative writing of all kinds are measures of the imaginative process and interest aroused by a study.

Standardized tests

Standardized tests of social studies information are generally of little value in helping teachers assess growth resulting from a particular unit or series of units. There is too much variance in the content through which social studies goals are met

² John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*, Second Edition (Englewood Cliffs, N.J. - Prentice-Hall, 1956), p. 423.

to provide a common informational basis for standardization. Standardized tests measure general social studies information. They are more frequently used in the elementary grades for the assessment of skills.

Assessing Change in Attitudes and Behaviors

All of learning is a process of changing behavior. Some changes are easily assessed—the use of correct letter forms in writing, a process in arithmetic, or responses to questions dealing with information. Because the teacher has clearly in mind the specific behavior desired, he is able to recognize the desired behavior. Much of the school's task, however, is concerned with behavior for which assessment is less obvious. For example, it is difficult to determine when many of the sub-goals, listed in Chapter 1 under *The Objectives of Civic Responsibility*,⁸ are finally attained. What assessment procedures can determine is whether an elementary school child is developing toward desired objectives: "The educated citizen accepts his civic duties." Obviously, a first step is the determination of procedures through which particular objectives are activated on levels appropriate to the children's development. Thus, the fifth graders described in Chapter 10 were encouraged to "act to correct unsatisfactory conditions" when they undertook an analysis of their work period and realistically suggested improvements. The determination of behaviors and attitudes toward which teaching is directed is the first step in the evaluation process.

Because overt behavior often fails to reveal the attitude that prompts it, whether this attitude—or tendency to behave—in itself will offer sufficient motivation for future use of the desired behaviors is difficult to assess. Desirable behavior in school may be impelled by motives that do not readily translate to out-of-school situations. Assessment of behavior must be accompanied by some assessment of attitudes. Evaluation procedures in this area are directed toward discovering feelings that prompt behavior.

⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. (Washington, D.C.: The American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1938).

Discussion

Frequently, teachers use discussion to open up an area for study to find out the personal reactions—feelings and attitudes—and factual information held by individuals. Subsequent discussions reveal the extent to which changes in “feelings about” as well as “information about” have resulted from the learning situations provided. Discussion arising from problem situations in the classroom also reveal children’s feelings and attitudes and is frequently an important preliminary to problem solving. Discussion focused on a well chosen picture or a problem story may be especially revealing. Pictures based on a particular problem, such as the one illustrated, provide not only for development of understandings, but afford the teacher a basis for assessing attitudes and understandings. Other picture stories furnish opportunity for assessing attitudes and feelings.

The series from which the illustration here was taken is designed to develop certain understandings, but the pictures in the series are especially useful in assessing children’s feelings about the problem-solving situation depicted.

Discussion of problem situation pictures and stories related to their own problems can provide an opportunity for assessing feelings of older children—as do on-the-spot problem situations of the playground and classroom. Attitude evaluation can derive from open-ended discussions based on current community, national, and world happenings as reported on TV and radio or in newspapers. Films with problem situations are also useful.

It is difficult to draw the line between the use of such materials for assessment purposes and their use for other purposes. However, there is no reason why their use for informal assessment should preclude children’s deriving other values from them at the same time.

The teacher’s assessment of attitudes should be a continuing process and his perceptions of children’s attitudes continually checked and rechecked through other devices. In addition to the discussion of problem situations depicted in pictures, stories, or movies, other projective techniques have provided teachers with insight into children’s feelings and attitudes. These include role-playing, completing the unfinished problem story, and writ-

DISCUSSION PICTURE*



* Thelma Kier Reese and Thomas J. Darell, *Basic Social Studies Discussion Pictures* (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Company, 1958), p. 35. This picture is one of a series directed toward developing social understanding. The Teacher Guide Book is a rich source for using discussion to develop concepts.

ten accounts such as "The Story of My Life," "What I Want To Be," "The Person I Admire Most."

"What Do You Think" (National Film Board of Canada distributed by McGraw-Hill) is a series of films useful in the upper grades for open discussion of problem situations.

Dramatic play

Dramatic play and informal dramatizations are useful for assessing as well as for developing attitudes and understandings.

The teacher's role in dramatic play, as indicated in Chapter 8, is largely one of assessment as he helps children attain greater depth of understanding in their play. This assessment process is also directed toward the individual's growth in ability to work with others and his ability to utilize ideas in furthering group and individual plans. Dramatic play is a natural means of expression for young children; their attitudes and feelings are spontaneously displayed.

Observing groups and individuals

Each of the assessment procedures already discussed have utilized informal observation procedures. Teachers observe behavior almost subconsciously and base the details of their classroom procedures largely on their observations. In this generalized observation, the teacher's concern is usually for the general group feeling as well as for the one or two children who are apt to need more attention. A more structured observation can be used in appraising behavior. Such observation should be more carefully planned than this casual observation. Observing behavior results in effective evaluative information when the following conditions are met:

- Observing focuses on one individual at a time, recording his behavior—not the teacher's judgment about it.
- Observing occurs often enough so that samples of behavior recorded can reflect a pattern of behavior rather than isolated incidents that do not represent the individual's typical behavior.
- Observing is scheduled so that each child is observed at regular intervals, in typical situations.

Some teachers have found observing children in relation to a given behavioral goal a helpful evaluative procedure. For example, teachers look for "sample behavior" indicating children's ability to cooperate in group situations. Their observing and recording also sharpen their own perceptions concerning cooperation in action as they shared incidents with each other.

Three groups of children are building beaver houses. (The motivation for this activity came from a story read by the teacher.) One isolated beaver couldn't gather his blocks together

fast enough. When he tried to steal a few blocks, his fellow beavers became very antagonistic. Finally he realized this strategy wouldn't work so he sat on his unfinished beaver house and thought. Finally, he went over to a group and said, "Will you please let me have just two blocks? I need two blocks to finish my house." Two "beavers" responded each with a block from their own "group built house." The two carried the blocks over to the lone "beaver's" house and helped him put the blocks in place. They admired his little house then, with flying heels, went back to their own group effort.⁴

Since observation, both informal and structured, is such a commonly used basis for determining classroom procedures, observing, recording, and drawing conclusions is an important teacher skill worth cultivating.

Assessing Skill Development

Social studies is instrumental in developing and furthering many skills. Evaluation of individual progress in a wide range of skills utilizes a variety of procedures, including measurement through standardized and teacher-made tests, and through observation of children's use of specific skills.

Standardized achievement tests

Standardized achievement tests provide one means of measuring individual achievements in such areas as reading, arithmetic, language usage, and spelling. To the degree that social studies contributes to the skill development in these areas, standardized tests measure its accomplishments. Perhaps the best use of standardized achievement tests of skills is to point out the areas of specific need so that learning experiences in social studies can be provided to deal with them. Achievement tests such as those listed here measure children's ability in several skills. The *Mental Measurements Yearbook*⁵ should be consulted for specific information on these and many other tests.

⁴ Reported by Sophie Schnitter, Santa Barbara County Schools.

⁵ Oscar K. Buros, ed., *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Highland Park, N.J.: The Gryphon Press, 1953).

SOME COMMONLY USED ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Test	Publisher	Grade	What It Tests
California Achievement Tests (1957)	California Test Bureau, Los Angeles	1-2 3-4 4-6 7-9	Reading Vocabulary Reading Comprehension Arithmetic Reasoning Arithmetic Fundamentals Mechanics of English Spelling Handwriting
Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (1955-56)	Houghton-Mifflin, Boston	3-9	Vocabulary Reading Comprehension Language Work-Study Skills Arithmetic
SRA Achievement Series (1954-57)	Science Research Associates, Chicago	2-4 3-4 6-9	Language Perception Arithmetic Language Arts Reading Work-Study Skills
Stanford Achievement (1953)	World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y.	Primary (1 9-3 5) Elementary 3-4 5-6 Intermediate (Partial)	Word Meaning Paragraph Meaning Arithmetic Computation Arithmetic Reasoning Above plus Language Same as above
Sequential Tests of Educational Progress	Cooperative Test Division Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.	4-6 7-9	Reading Writing Mathematics Also included: Science Social Studies Listening Essay

Teacher-made tests; check lists

Skills develop when teachers provide for instruction and practice in those for which children are ready. An essential part of planning is assessing the level of development already attained. In the elementary classroom, tests are most often focused on finding out how effective specific instruction has been and which individuals need further instruction and practice before proceeding to the next level. Tests may be designed to measure specific skills. Tests can be devised for skills requisite to interpreting maps and globes, skill in locating information by using the index, table of contents, or card file. What is being tested, however, is children's knowledge about the process. More important is whether the children actually use the appropriate processes. For this reason, careful observation of how children use skills is an important means of evaluation. For example, successful completion of a test like the sample presented below indicates that children have knowledge about the use of both author and title card index. Observing children as they seek information is necessary to determine whether or not they use that knowledge.

A SAMPLE TEST ITEM*Using the Card File*

Tell which card file (author or title) you would use to locate the following books. Circle the letter you would use to guide you to the card file.

- Little Pear by Eleanor Lattimore _____
Nicky's Football Team by Marion
Renick _____
America Builds Homes _____
A book by Lois Lenski _____
White Stag _____

Many of the skills fostered by social studies are difficult but necessary to assess—group participation skills, for instance: dis-

cussion, group enterprises such as construction, art activities, dramatization, and problem solving of all kinds. For the children, as well as the teacher, a check list against which to assess performance in these areas can be developed and used. The teacher may have a more pointed check list, whereas children measure themselves against standards they have discussed and agreed upon.

Check lists for individual use, usually in conference with the teacher, may be developed and used.

DISCUSSION CHARTS

(GRADE I)

Discussion

1. Take turns.
2. Help make plans.
3. Listen to others.

(GRADE III)

Discussion

1. Talk about one thing at a time.
2. Listen without making noise.
3. Tell something new.
4. Ask questions.
5. Take turns.

(GRADE VI)

Discussion

1. Keep the purpose and topic in mind.
2. Be careful not to repeat ideas already presented.
3. Raise questions and make suggestions related to the topic.
4. Share the discussion by being brief and to the point.
5. Help summarize.

SELF-APPRAISAL CHECK LIST

In our work period did I——

- help plan?
- go to work promptly?
- use materials efficiently?
- stay on the job?
- finish as much as I could?
- clean up on time?
- evaluate our work?

Sociograms

Sociograms as an aid to the teacher in grouping children in social studies were discussed in Chapter 5. Using as a basis the knowledge of the social structure of the class provided by the sociograms, teachers attempt to provide opportunities for children to develop the kinds of interpersonal relationships they seem to need. As sociometric data are gathered in the year, these opportunities should be reflected in the changing social structure of the group. More "stars" and fewer "isolates" may be a reflection of effective group procedures.

Recording Data

Evaluative evidence gathered from the many procedures discussed should be recorded so as to give a clear picture of each individual's progress. Many school systems utilize cumulative records, which, beginning with a child's entrance into school in kindergarten or first grade, are passed on from teacher to teacher as he progresses through school. Such a record, usually a folder, contains information on family history, results of health examinations, standardized tests, and, sometimes, a record of past units of work. Usually, the cumulative record furnishes important data as the teacher begins work with a group new to him. As the year progresses, the cumulative record folder becomes the repository for observation notes, records of incidents

CHECK LIST OF WORK HABITS AND ATTITUDES ESSENTIAL IN CONSTRUCTION AND MANUAL ARTS PERIODS⁶**1. UNDERTAKES HIS JOB WILLINGLY**

Goes to work happily and enthusiastically

2. WASTES NO TIME IN GETTING STARTED

Keeps conversation of his committee to the planning of work in hand

Settles all disagreements reasonably

Knows where to find materials

Finds convenient space in which to work

3. PROFITS BY OBSERVATION AND DIRECTIONS

Remembers points brought to the attention of the group

Learns from the experience of others

4. PERSISTS UNDER DIFFICULTY

Is resourceful in figuring out solutions to his problems

Has patience to try many times if necessary

Seeks and secures help if needed

5. HANDLES TOOLS WITH CARE

Tries to use the right tool for each job

Tries to use each tool in the proper way

Is careful not to hurt other people

6. SHARES MATERIALS

Can be a member of a work group without quarreling

Sees opportunities to help others

Is willing to wait his turn

7. IS SATISFIED ONLY WITH CAREFUL WORK

Takes pride in a job well done

8. DOES A GOOD CLEAN-UP JOB

Stops when signal is given

Puts away his materials and tools in their proper places

Leaves place clean and orderly

⁶ California State Department of Education, *Evaluating Pupil Progress*, Vol. XXI, Number 6 (Sacramento: April, 1951), p. 130. (The Chart of Evaluation of Work Habits on the next page is also adopted from this source, p. 131.)

CHART FOR EVALUATION OF WORK HABITS DURING CONSTRUCTION AND MANUAL ARTS PERIODS

Date _____

NAMES								
	<i>Undertakes his job willingly</i>	<i>Wastes no time getting started</i>	<i>Persists under difficulty</i>	<i>Profits by observation and directions</i>	<i>Handles tools with care</i>	<i>Shares materials</i>	<i>Is satisfied only with careful work</i>	<i>Does good clean-up job</i>
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

noted, and samples of children's work. It contains the rough data that the teacher will study as a basis for his assessment of the growth and needs of each child.

Assessment of gains attained through social studies is of primary interest to the teacher as a measure of the effectiveness of instructional procedures. Data collected should further a program of evaluation that meets the following criteria:

1. It includes all the means of collecting evidence on pupil behavior: . . .
2. It is more concerned with growth than it is with where the pupil stands in relation to his peers or to national norms . . .

3. It is a continuous process, an integral part of all learning: . . .
4. It is descriptive as well as quantitative: . . .
5. It is concerned with all aspects of the child's behavior and with all the objectives which the teacher hopes will be achieved: . . .
6. It is a cooperative process involving pupils, parents, and teachers: . . .⁷

Evaluation and Children

The teacher is not alone in his concern with assessment of social studies outcomes. Children, too, have an interest in specific achievement. As in other areas, the ability to assess progress, for which one is responsible as an individual and as a group member, should be fostered by school experiences. Most social studies procedures discussed earlier in this book stress group and individual evaluation as an integral part of every learning experience.

Children's interest in social studies

Since learning in social studies is so clearly dependent on children's interest involvement, perhaps the teacher's first question should be, "Do these children like social studies?" There is indication that, although elementary school children are interested in topics that belong under the heading of social studies, children express more unfavorable attitudes toward social studies than toward any academic subject.⁸

This paradox—children's interest in social studies topics coupled with their dislike of it as a school subject—emphasizes the need to begin evaluation with some reference to children's attitudes toward it. Questions such as these may be helpful to the teacher assessing interest building possibilities in social studies for each child.

⁷ Lavone A. Hanna, Gladys L. Potter, Neva Hagaman, *Unit Teaching in the Elementary School* (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1955), pp. 362-63.

⁸ W. Linwood Chase, "Individual Differences in Classroom Learning," *Social Studies in the Elementary School, Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 172.

1. How much doing is there compared with how much listening?
2. What evidence is there that the child is following one of his interests?
3. Is his experience with an activity successful and satisfying?
4. Is he making use of some special ability in contributing to a group project?
5. In what ways has he been allowed to express his own special interests?
6. Is the learning situation purposeful enough so that the importance of learning is apparent to the child himself?

The need for pupil evaluation of progress stems from genuine interest and involvement in planning and carrying out vital experiences. Without purpose on the part of children, their assessment of accomplishments and needs has little value.

On-going evaluation

The daily planning and evaluation procedures discussed in Chapter 5 provide a "running account" of accomplishments, both product and process. Standards discussed, agreed upon, and recorded provide a yardstick against which to assess many kinds of activities. Group plans (and planning itself is a form of assessment) require group evaluation. The teacher shares in this process as a member of the group, providing guidance yet never dominating the evaluation process. Guidance may involve:

1. Insuring that there is enough time for thoughtful evaluation. Group thinking requires time to "warm up."
2. Helping children link evaluation to planning. Frequently, this means helping children recall yesterday's difficulties and suggestions for improvement as part of today's planning. Dealing with difficulties as they arise helps children recognize the meaning of evaluation as a guide to action.
3. Helping children avoid trite and routine evaluation procedures. Thorough consideration of the most pressing problems or striking accomplishments, instead of routine reporting of all, keeps evaluation a live process.

⁹ Arthur T. Jersild and Ruth J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949), p. 28.

Individual self-evaluation is also an important part of the social studies evaluation process. Teachers can help children reach judgments about their own progress, based on the evidence at hand. They can help children use these judgments as guides to action. Samples of children's work, such as written reports and stories, collected over a period of time help children in self-assessment of gains and needs. Private conferences with children provide opportunity to assess less tangible accomplishments. Check lists sometimes provide a basis for pupil-teacher discussion when these have been developed by the class as guides to behavior. Not all evidence upon which teachers base their judgments are shared with children. Rather, the conference re-enforces children's ability in self-evaluation as evidence on which continued pupil-teacher assessment is based is reviewed and next steps plotted.

Evaluation and Parents

Reporting social studies accomplishments to parents requires some means of communicating the goals sought as well as an individual's progress toward them. Hazy conceptions of the goals of social studies complicates finding a satisfactory means of reporting progress. Perhaps no single means of reporting progress and certainly no arbitrary system of marking, can describe any child's progress toward the broad goals sought. Therefore, many means of communication between teacher and parent are essential.

Children's Role

Children themselves offer parents the first and best evidence of progress. A social studies program counts when children carry home interests developed in social studies and attempt to satisfy those interests through all resources available at home. Parents respect evidences of interest that lead children to talk with parents and other adults, watch and listen to related TV and radio programs, read newspapers, magazines and other related materials available at home, use community library resources and test out school information against real life information. Self-assigned tasks to further school undertakings attest to

studies. However, thoughtful evaluation of progress in social studies often opens up some of the most fruitful areas for mutual consideration. Because test data collected in spelling, arithmetic, and reading seem to present objective evidence is no reason to discuss only these and ignore some of the broader goals of the school. Careful evaluation in social studies can help focus attention on the purposes it seeks to fulfill—depth of understanding, a broad range of skills, and behavior consistent with democratic ideals.

Parents have much to tell teachers, too. For this reason, parent conferences provide a good means of mutual sharing of perceptions concerning children's progress and mutual understanding of goals.

The Teacher's Professional Growth

Throughout this book the role of the teacher as a guide to learners has received constant emphasis. Ways of working with children so that they may do their own learning have been described. But, there is no single way of teaching. Teaching is a highly adaptive procedure requiring teachers who are in the continuous process of increasing and revising their professional knowledge and skill. The elementary teacher teaches much more than social studies, but social studies provides many opportunities for continuing professional growth. With the total elementary school program as well as social studies in mind, professional growth may proceed in these ways:

Continue to study *children* and *research* related to child development. Professional education has utilized findings from sociology and psychology in helping teachers toward more effective classroom procedures. The effect of social environment, of self-perception as a factor in learning, of the developmental task concepts—these and many more, dealt with throughout this book, have direct bearing on classroom procedures and require thoughtful translation. Continued effort to utilize findings in classrooms, in the individual school program, and in the total education program should accompany growing knowledge. Because the school is a social institution responsible to the public, change proceeds slowly. Research and study can have their effect

on practice if there is a willingness to act on and try out promising new methods. As never before, teachers share with administrators and community groups in building curriculum—this is their professional responsibility.

Continue to study society. Teacher education programs throughout the country are placing much emphasis on an adequate general education background for future teachers, including emphasis in the field of the social sciences. But, the social sciences are expanding fields of knowledge, and study must be continuous. Elementary teachers deal with elementary texts, which present oversimplified versions of issues and events. To counteract the hazard of oversimplification, elementary teachers must add continually to their own knowledge—through reading, study, and travel. A study dealing with community life at the third grade level can become a meagre recital of obvious facts unless the teacher's study in many social sciences equip him to help children discover the interrelationship of economic, geographic, and sociological factors. Children demand much from adults who are their teachers; in meeting that demand, adults who are teachers expand their own horizons and enrich their own lives.

Summary

Evaluation procedures must focus on goals sought and gather data pertinent to those goals. They require consideration of all phases of social studies—understandings, behaviors, and attitudes, and growth in specific skills. They also help set goals, as continuing evaluation of all goals provides direction for teaching and learning. Recording and interpreting evaluation data is an important teacher task. Although the teacher carries major responsibility for evaluation, children and parents are directly involved and participate in the process. Many ways of communicating, written and spoken, formal and informal, are used to keep all concerned informed of progress made and next steps needed.

The teacher is concerned with his own professional growth and his responsibility for keeping abreast of new developments in fields related to teaching. Professional and personal development often go hand in hand.

For Further Study

Gathering data to match the goals of social studies requires a variety of procedures. Recording, interpreting, and communicating are of value only if the data gathered pertains to goals sought.

1. List the kinds of data you would collect in assessing each of the goals you hope to achieve through the unit you have developed. Explain the advantages and disadvantages you see in using each type of data.

2. Use Buros' *The Mental Measurement Yearbook* to justify your choice of a standardized test to measure:

Reading comprehension.

Work study skills.

Problem solving ability related to arithmetic.

3. Using the age-group for which your unit was prepared, develop a check list to provide a basis for children's self-evaluation in relation to—

Giving reports.

Working with others.

Research reading.

Construction period.

Discussion.

4. Role-play a teacher-parent conference with your classmates.

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